

# THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

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*Volume XVII*

JANUARY 1943

*Number 3*

## ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

AT ITS fall meeting which was held in the Palmer House, Chicago, October 24, 1942, the Executive Committee "recorded itself as approving a shortening of the period of the Annual Meeting of the Association. The meetings of the Commissions would begin on Tuesday, the meetings of the Association would begin on Thursday morning with a joint meeting of three Commissions as the first session, and the meetings would conclude on Friday noon. A business meeting and a highlighted program would serve as the last session."

The foregoing is quoted from the minutes of the Executive Committee. By this action the annual meeting will adjourn at noon, Friday, instead of on Saturday as heretofore. Wartime restrictions led the Committee to shorten the meeting.

### PROBLEMS, TASKS, AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN OUR NATION AT WAR

The colleges and universities of the nation enter the year 1943 under conditions which challenge their courage, their best thought and their fullest energies. The rapidity with which the United States has placed herself on a complete and all-inclusive war footing has inevitably brought dislocations and casualties to many cherished social and

economic institutions, which have long been considered important and essential parts of our national life.

The plans and requirements of our armed forces take precedence over all normal activities in these crucial days. Civilians cheerfully and loyally (for the most part) relinquish many of the privileges and even necessities for the common good. The people generally are united in the determination to do all that may be necessary to insure the success of the great ideals of decency, justice, freedom, and right for which we fight.

In the past two years the secondary schools, the colleges and the universities have made notable contributions to the nation's war program. Hundreds of thousands of young men and women have been trained for service in basic war industries. Many military and naval units are being trained in vital technical fields, for which the facilities of our educational institutions were freely made available. Research of fundamental importance is being conducted in many scientific laboratories. Staff members in great number are actively engaged with the armed forces, in governmental agencies and in industry. Thousands of recent college graduates are serving as officers, having received their preliminary military training through



the Reserve Officers Training Corps; incidentally, it has been stated by competent authorities that the Army of the United States could not have been brought so quickly to its present strength and efficiency if it had not been for the existence and readiness of this great pool of college-trained young reserve officers.

Since June, 1941, college and universities in increasing numbers have reorganized their educational programs on a full year basis. New courses and curricula have been established to meet the technical and specialized needs of this mechanized war. Civilian Pilot Training courses have provided primary and secondary flight training to thousands of young men, most of whom are now in active service.

It is difficult for us to grasp the full import of this universal struggle, its implications for the future of our political, economic, and social institutions and its impact on the thinking and reactions of the American people, and especially the millions of our young people who are now, or soon will be, active participants. It is not surprising that many students are bewildered; many of their elders are equally confused. Many schools and colleges have endeavored to meet this situation, at least in part, through public discussions, student forums, lectures, and publications on the background of the struggle, the fundamental current issues and the possible bases for an enduring peace. Such a program is of vital importance to our mental and spiritual health. As a great democratic nation, we face no greater danger than that involved in the failure to keep ourselves fully and correctly informed, to the end that we may act intelligently, promptly, and courageously on this global stage where the scenes and the actors change so rapidly and violently.

These are some of the contributions of the nation's schools to the nation's immediate and pressing needs. They are contributions of which we may well be proud; and they are capable of expansion in rapid tempo and scope.

Nevertheless, the colleges and universities have been handicapped in their efforts to serve, and their students and staffs badly confused, because there has not been developed an over-all national policy, clear-cut and comprehensive, for the efficient use of these great national educational agencies. With superb physical plants, libraries, laboratories, and scientific equipment, and with adequately trained personnel the institutions of higher education are fully prepared, in ability and in spirit, to assume a much larger share of the responsibility for bringing all the resources of the country to bear on the great struggle.

The years 1943 and 1944 will be critical and of far-reaching significance for higher education in the United States. It is naturally quite difficult to plan ahead because of uncertainty as to student enrollments and the educational needs of the armed forces, of industry and of essential civilian activities. But there are a few reasonably clear aspects of the situation which give us some basis for judgment and tentative planning.

One of the most urgent needs of all the armed forces is for a great number of men trained in specialized and technical fields; it has been stated that sixty out of each one hundred men in the service must have such skills. Available facilities of many universities, scientific and technological institutions, and of selected liberal arts colleges are now being used for this purpose.

Industry is employing many women, who are filling responsible jobs hitherto filled by men. Women with training in basic mathematics, physics, and chemistry are now in great demand.



The continuing need for engineers, doctors, scientists, and others trained in allied fields is officially recognized and provision will be made for the further training of such students through accelerated programs.

The shortage of teachers in the public schools is now extremely serious and should properly be a matter of national concern.

It is interesting to note that Great Britain has recognized the value of the liberal arts in providing a sound basis for the development of leadership qualities, and has worked out a plan whereby selected young men may pursue such a program for a period of nine months before entering the service.

These suggestions indicate some of our immediate problems, tasks, and opportunities. Local and regional conditions may readily suggest other opportunities for service to the alert educator.

But in these momentous and uncertain days we must never lose sight of our fundamental mission and objectives and of the opportunities for even greater contributions to the people of the United States in the challenging years ahead. Our mental and spiritual attitude and our philosophy of life will deeply affect students and staff with whom we come in daily contact. This is no time for the petty mind nor the faltering spirit. This is no time for gloomy, hopeless pessimism. Rather, we face a call to greater service, and an opportunity to demonstrate anew that in this great democracy education, religion, and morality are still the foundations of our national life, and the bulwarks of that way of life to which literally hundreds of millions of people are looking hopefully today, even through their desperation, their blood, and their tears.

This is also our opportunity to take inventory of our activities and resources, and plan courageously, prayerfully, and

as intelligently as possible for the future. How can we help to make that future great and secure? The prospect offers us the greatest challenge that has come to our educational system.

May I suggest one important possibility for greater service. The schools of America should offer to all of their students the opportunity for a clear understanding and appreciation of the civilization of which they are a part, its origin, its present status and problems, the structure and operation of its government, and the culture and traditions of its people. Frankly, in many institutions this vital service to the student is poorly done, or not done at all. These important activities, if adequately and seriously presented, should give the student a good foundation for that intangible but vital element in his education which is generally known as good citizenship. To a certain extent such knowledge and understanding, and perhaps appreciation, can be given in the classroom; but classroom activities must be supplemented by the example which we can and must set of staunch and active loyalty to our democratic principles, our democratic ideals, and our democratic institutions. I freely admit that our way of life is not yet perfect. But it seems to be a definite rule in human development that what is to endure must be slowly matured and gradually improved; while on the other hand, any sudden attempt, however ambitious, to overthrow the existing order of things and set up a full-blown Utopia in its place, is doomed to premature decay from its very beginning.

To meet the present crisis and the reconstruction to follow, we shall need all our energy, all our courage, and all our intelligence. We must view the situation realistically. There should be no legitimate cause for pessimism, for we have the ability to do the job if we



learn how to use that ability. If we find ourselves unable to make a perfect world overnight, we should remember that the processes of human evolution, material, ethical and spiritual, are to be measured by ages and not by days. The democratic ideal of freedom, justice and right is still the hope of humanity. And that freedom cannot flourish and blossom unless education—of the mind and spirit—is free, unselfish, and untrammelled.

CHARLES E. FRILEY

#### ACADEMIC CREDIT FOR MILITARY EXPERIENCE

Under date of November 7, 1942, the following communication was mailed to all members of the North Central Association:

##### *To All Member Institutions:*

Your attention is called to the enclosed statement approved by the Executive Committee of the Association at its meeting on last Saturday, October 24, 1942. The statement is self-explanatory. It is hoped that all member institutions will read it most carefully and take appropriate action that will conform to the principles involved and the recommended plan endorsed by the Executive Committee.

The Executive Committee hopes and believes that this action is one which every school administrator will heartily approve and welcome. The Executive Committee will welcome, and, in fact, does urge, all institutions to make known either to the Secretary of the Commission on Colleges and Universities (if they be collegiate institutions) or to the Secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools (if they be secondary schools) what formal actions, if any, bearing on this matter have already been taken or are being contemplated. We bespeak your interest, careful study, and whole-hearted approval of the plan proposed.

Very cordially yours,  
(Signed) G. W. ROSENLOF  
Secretary

The "enclosed statement" which is mentioned above is as follows:

##### IMPORTANT

The Executive Committee of the North Central Association at its meeting on January

12, 1942, drafted a statement of policy that was sent to all member institutions. That statement encouraged the secondary schools and colleges to cooperate in every way possible in the war effort. It also stressed the importance of safeguarding the quality of work that is done.

Various developments in our national situation since January 12, 1942, have given rise to new problems in secondary and higher education. One of particular importance at present pertains to the granting of academic credit to men and women on the basis of educational experience acquired in the armed services, and the necessity of developing at an early date a definite plan for determining and allocating such credit.

The two most obvious general policies that can be followed in adopting such a plan are:

1. The granting of a constant amount of "blanket credit" to all such individuals without any regard to their actual educational achievement;
2. The granting of credit to individuals on some such basis as competence actually demonstrated through performance on specially prepared examinations.

The first of these policies was followed quite generally in World War I. As a result of that experience, the detrimental effects of this policy are so generally known that they need not be set forth here. The Executive Committee, therefore, urges its member institutions to avoid the adoption of a policy of granting blanket credit.

The second policy is sound in principle in that it recognizes a difference in the educational benefits derived from military service and from instruction received through various avenues during the period of service. Moreover, the adoption of this policy is feasible because agencies and techniques for measuring differential achievement are now available.

For example, a special committee reporting to the Joint Army and Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation has already drafted proposals which in effect are as follows:

1. That credit not to exceed one-half semester be granted upon presentation of evidence of having completed the basic training course ordinarily included in the first thirteen weeks in the armed forces. This credit may be assigned to physical education, hygiene, military training or electives.
2. That the student be given classification in secondary school or college appropriate to demonstrated intellectual maturity and achievement as measured by examinations covering educational experiences and instruction in the armed forces. Each institution may provide



its own criteria for determining the standing given the student. The armed forces stand ready to develop appropriate examinations through which to provide institutions with evidence as to the educational accomplishments of men and women leaving the service who plan to continue their education.

3. That the extent to which a student is judged to have completed requirements in his field of concentration be determined by achievement examinations in that field. Here again, the armed forces stand ready to develop appropriate examinations through which to provide institutions with evidence as to the educational accomplishments of men and women leaving the service who plan to continue their education.

The Executive Committee endorses a plan of this type.

In order that the military agencies may be encouraged to develop a program for measuring and reporting the achievement of the men and women under their direction, and further, in order that institutions may forestall the demands for blanket credit for military service, each institution is urged to renew its policies and to adopt a definite plan concerning the admission and placement of students returning from service. Institutions are requested to give particular attention to the problems that will arise in the admission of students whose secondary credentials will include credit granted on the basis of demonstrated achievement rather than courses completed.

#### A HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL SPEAKS ABOUT ACTUAL LIBRARY CONDITIONS VERSUS ASSOCIATION CRITERIA

In the October, 1942, issue of the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY, A. W. Clevenger summarizes a study of high school libraries. The report is a revelation of actual conditions. Here is shown for the first time what standardization committees discover if data are accurately reported. It is relatively easy, of course, to set up criteria but often difficult to meet them. In a majority of cases, school administrators are anxious and willing not only to comply with requirements but also to exceed them because in the end it is the local school which benefits thereby.

What is the difficulty which prevents

complete fulfillment of accrediting criteria? In most communities, it is a sheer lack of money with which to do that which taxpayers themselves want to do for their boys and girls. Of recent years, in Michigan it has been the 15-mill amendment which has brought many schools to an abrupt standstill. Libraries can not continue to operate on books purchased ten years ago. Nor can they perform efficiently on funds supplied solely by the state, such as penal fines. There are some communities which buy only as many books as are paid for by the subscribers in the form of rentals and dues! The community or high school library should be the one institution which ought not to be compelled to fight for existence. But progress has been impossible. Externally school buildings are in operation. There is little change for the worse which meets the public eye. Internally, however, retrenchment has set in and this is definitely indicated by the library report.

The school building itself frequently makes it hard for school administrators to comply with various criteria. Thus Table XI of Clevenger's report shows that in a vast majority of institutions (1,451 schools), libraries are located in rooms designed for them, but the second largest number are found in study halls. In Iron River, and our community is typical, a room was designed for the library by the school architect but it also must serve as a study hall. But a study hall is not a library or vice versa. Nevertheless, it must be—where it is the only facility provided for both purposes. On a five-period schedule, such a room is apt to be filled almost to capacity each hour of the day. Under these circumstances pupils do not feel free to consult the teacher-librarian. To do so would disturb the study of others. Books are distributed all around the room. To go to the stacks for a reference volume is physically out of ques-



tion. Yet that is precisely what students should be able to do!

As a teacher of English for many years, it was always a pleasant duty for me to accompany my students to the library. In that community it was located in a separate building. There we taught them how to use its facilities most effectively, including the Dewey decimal system and scores of other helpful items. But where the library is used as a study hall, this help can not be given to students, first, because the group is numerically too large, and, second, because an attempt to do so would unavoidably disturb others.

Where the above conditions exist, the amount of reading is decidedly smaller than would otherwise be the case. The library should be a place of quietness and peace where books may be chosen at will and read with ease. It should be chiefly a place where acquaintance with good books is at least possible. The world's greatest books are not studied as in a study hall, they are loved. The study-hall-library connotes too much of assignments. A teacher is on "duty" to see that boys and girls study their algebra or economics. For them to read the daily newspaper, a reputable magazine, or a novel for their own pleasure and profit is out of the question! Therefore, the fact remains, the library must be the study hall. There is no other place. When architects and building committees fail to envision pupil needs we must adjust ourselves to the physical building and take the consequences.

There is but one alternative for teachers who are anxious for their pupils to read voluminously. Such a plan was initiated at Negaunee, Michigan, several years ago. There books have been allocated to the various English classrooms. Teachers advise constantly with their students as to their reading. Classes are small enough to enable an individual pupil to choose from the shelves

in his own classroom the book he wants to read. He does not feel embarrassed because everybody is doing the same thing—returning those which they have read, looking at new books, thumbing through them, and signing up for new ones. The net result is that students read not only the four or five "required" classics but also from ten to fifty additional books annually.

Such a plan can be placed in operation where study halls now obtain, but it does not change the basic problem: the library is still both the study hall and the place to which students must go for basic reference materials. The two functions—quiet study and reference work can not go on simultaneously. In most schools, the latter is apt to suffer because teachers insist on decorum and a minimum of movement from place to place. It can be no other way.

Some problems can be solved, but often their solution requires money. Boards of Education soon discover this precious commodity is wanted in other places as well as in the library. Alterations or extensions to the present building are apt to be expensive. The result is we get along as well as we can with what we have, observing some criteria to the best of our ability, but being practically powerless to do anything at all about others. As a general rule, school administrators subscribe to high standards. We see the necessity for such standards clearly, but the public is hard to convince. Status quo is apt to maintain itself in the average community. The library, apparently, is no exception.

RANDALL R. PENEHALE

FRATERNAL DELEGATES TO EFFECT  
EXCHANGE OF IDEAS WITH OTHER  
REGIONAL ACCREDITING  
ASSOCIATIONS

The sharp problems which educational institutions are facing everywhere intensify the importance of the respon-



sibilities which accrediting associations must now assume. This fact led the Executive Committee especially to commission this year's fraternal delegates to sister associations to effect a mutual exchange of ideas upon wartime policies and practices in these various organizations. The following members of the Executive Committee were appointed to represent the North Central Association at the places indicated:

CHARLES E. FRILEY, president, Iowa State College, and president of the North Central Association: the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Memphis, November 30 to December 4.

WILLIAM E. McVEY, superintendent, Thornton Township High School and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois: the New England Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Boston, December 4-5.

GORDON N. MACKENZIE, associate professor of education, University of Wisconsin, and secretary, the Commission on Research and Service of the North Central Association: the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, New York City, November 27-28.

These men will report their observations to the Executive Committee at a later date. It was voted that no delegate be sent to the Northwest Association this year.

#### GAGE SUCCEEDS WORKS IN CHAIRMANSHIP OF SUBCOMMITTEE

H. M. Gage, president of Lindenwood College, St. Charles, Missouri, has been appointed chairman of the Subcommittee on Preparation of Teachers by Colleges of Liberal Arts. This position was vacated through the resignation of George Works. Clarence L. Furrow, professor of biology, Knox College, Galesburg, Illinois, was made a member of the committee. These appointments were approved by the Executive Committee at its meeting in Chicago, October 24, 1942.

The extensive activities of this Sub-

committee are well known through the reports of its investigations which have been published in the *QUARTERLY* from time to time.

#### MISSOURI STATE COMMITTEE REORGANIZED

The new constitution, adopted by the Association last April, provides that in states which have fewer than three hundred high schools accredited by the Association the membership of each State Committee shall include three administrative heads of North Central high schools, and five in states which have more than three hundred schools so accredited. It is further stated that "The administrative heads of secondary schools to be included in the membership of a State Committee shall be recommended for membership by the association of high school principals or corresponding organization of the state, and their names shall be transmitted to the secretary of the Commission on Secondary Schools by the chairman of the state committee. All members of the state committee on Secondary Schools shall be recommended by the Commission on Secondary Schools, and they shall be nominated by the Executive Committee for election by the Association."

Since the former constitution carried no such provision, each State Committee was permitted, in practice, to have as many advisory members as it wished. Under this practice, three states, in each of which fewer than three hundred high schools are accredited by the Association, had memberships which did not conform with this new provision; namely, Michigan five, Missouri five, and New Mexico two. As indicated in the July issue of the *QUARTERLY*, these State Committees were therefore in process of reorganization. The first to report to the Executive Committee for



approval *ad interim* was Missouri. By action of the Executive Committee the present membership of the Missouri State Committee was approved as follows:

JOHN RUFI, Chairman, University of Missouri

WENDALL EVANS, State Department of Public Instruction

GILES THEILMANN, Maplewood-Richmond Heights High School, 3 years

H. V. MASON, Senior High School, Hannibal, 2 years

CARL D. GUM, William Chrisman High School, Independence, 1 year.

Similar action by Michigan and New Mexico committees must await meetings of the high school principals' associations in these two states.

#### MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION ADDS FOUR INSTITUTIONS TO ITS LIST

At a recent meeting of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, the following institutions were placed on the approved list of the Middle States Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools:

Duquesne University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania  
State Teachers College, Mansfield, Pennsylvania

Thiel College, Greenville, Pennsylvania

Washington Missionary College (including Columbia Junior College as a component part), Washington, D.C.

#### EIGHTEENTH ANNUAL CELEBRATION OF NEGRO HISTORY WEEK

The high schools for Negroes accredited by the North Central Association will join in the eighteenth annual celebration of Negro History Week, February 7-14. "The schools will have the opportunity to demonstrate what they have learned from the study of the race during the year," reads the announcement by the Association for the Study of Negro Life and History, Incorporated. The notice concludes as follows:

Nothing at the present time can do more good than a national demonstration of what the Negro has done to advance democracy. This will be the central thought of *The Negro History Bulletin* throughout the year and the outstanding feature of the Negro History Week Posters.

#### CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

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Institutions at the University of Michigan; EDMON C. LOW is librarian at Oklahoma Agriculture and Mechanical College; MILTON D. McLEAN is associate professor of religion at Macalester College; RANDALL R. PENHALE is principal of the high school at Iron River, Michigan; MABEL RUGEN is associate professor of physical education for

women at the University of Michigan, and health co-ordinator in the University High School; J. LLOYD TRUMP is principal of the Horace Mann High School, Gary, Indiana; J. F. WALKER is professor of educational psychology at the University of Arizona; and C. A. WEBER is superintendent of schools at Galva, Illinois.

## PROFESSIONAL ADVENTURES IN NORTH CENTRAL CIRCLES

*Evanston Township High School.*—This well known school has been issuing a house bulletin for some years. It is a formal publication, de-

ILLINOIS

voted to both routine and special features, but primarily the latter. For instance, it is the policy of the school to offer from time to time special reports on the different fields of study within the general curriculum. Since 1937-38, at least English, mathematics, social studies, and music have been so featured. Again, "The New School," a cooperative project operated jointly with the School of Education, Northwestern University, got under way first in the autumn of 1937. Its purposes and procedures are consistently reported thereafter. Contrasted with it are running accounts of "The Old School" also.

Other major phases of the diversified program of this school of 131 teachers and 3,137 students are likewise dealt with; such as, safety education, remedial English, visual education, the "tuberculosis case finding program," the student service bureau, the job opportunity survey, extension activities, special projects of the P. T. A., guidance, the development of non-academic courses, and work experience.

Since December, 1941, the war activities of the school have naturally been emphasized. Under the caption, "The High School Goes to War," the achievements of alumni in war service are mentioned and the fact that "... school this past year took on a new meaning and purpose as students and faculty alike sought ways by which they might serve." Attention is given to the committee on defense, to curriculum changes

as a result of the war, to health and physical education, nutrition, "toughening-up" activities, faculty participation, the student war activities commission, junior air raid wardens, and the like. In 1942 separate bulletins were issued on advantages of going to summer school and on guidance in selecting curriculum opportunities.

This wide range of descriptive literature gives the reader a glimpse into a metropolitan school aggressively at work amidst its manifold responsibilities.

*Marengo Community School.*—In the densely populated section of Illinois northwest of Chicago, and sixty-five miles from that mid-western metropolis, lies Marengo, one of the smaller towns of the commonwealth. The citizens of this center, however, enjoy being kept thoroughly and intimately informed concerning the local Community School. One means of so advising parents and others is the annual report issued by Principal W. E. McCleery to the Board of Education, "and through it, to the parents and interested citizens."

The report for 1941-42 contains forty-two pages of mimeographed material covering selected activities and features of the school. Each section was prepared by the teacher whose field of specialization is represented. The foreword, which really is a letter of transmittal, appears over the signature of Mr. McCleery. The whole is expressed in simple, friendly style.

The Marengo Community School may lay claim to being a "community" institution, not only because of the richness of educational offerings and experiences which the report in question describes, but also because of the recognition



which the school executive gives to those with whom he works, including the citizens and the Board of Education which they elected to represent them.

*Alma.*—Since neither Alma nor the county in which it is located has an organized health department, the school

authorities at Alma, MICHIGAN wishing to supplement the health services in the schools of that city, employed a public health nurse who began her work in August, 1941. The health services as set up were unique in that the nurse was to carry on a generalized nursing program; that is, her home visits were not confined to school services alone but were to include all health services in that home. Professional advice and nursing care were also to be given or demonstrated where need for such was indicated.

This plan had some unexpected results. For instance, in the Alma senior high school all seniors are required to take a course in government. In the last semester of the school year 1941-42 this government class under the guidance of the teacher, divided itself into four sections, each of which chose some special phase it wished to study. One section chose health, so it was not long before certain seniors appeared in the nurse's office for information and referral to other sources. This in turn led to a request for the nurse to speak to the group, which resulted in several discussion groups. It was soon evident to the teacher and the nurse what health problems and information these seniors were interested in. Plans for the following year were accordingly made with the school administration whereby the nurse was to meet once a week with each section of the government class to follow up a course in pre-parental education. The aim of this course was

to stimulate and contribute to the development of better knowledge of one's self and one's relationship to the home, community and state. It was also hoped that the course would co-ordinate the teaching of home economics, biology, chemistry, sociology, government, shop, and the like.

In planning the course the nurse discussed content with some teachers; with three young married couples with small babies where the nurse had given prenatal, postnatal, and infant services; with parents of some of the seniors; and with some college students, both boys and girls.

Source material was obtained from the Adult Education Department of the University of Michigan, Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit, American Youth Commission of Washington, D. C., the State Department of Health, Father's Forum in a near-by county, etc.

The local public library, state library and Library of Michigan Department of Health loaned books to supplement reference material in the school library.

*East Jackson.*—Public assemblies, the student council, and the school paper are utilized in the school-community relations at East Jackson school, at Jackson, Michigan. Public assemblies are held, with programs presented by the pupils showing various phases of school work. These are offered within school hours, and are attended by both students and parents. Each semester two such assemblies are given by the high school, one by the junior high and one by the elementary grades. Such matters as school spirit at athletic events, the work of the Junior Red Cross, and school war activities are emphasized. Christmas and patriotic programs are also given. Moreover, a Parent Band Association and an active Parent-Teacher Association help to strengthen the bond between school and community.

The Student Council aims primarily at training future leaders for the community. Representatives are elected to the Council from each class and school organization. The council has entire charge of the financing of extracurricular activities, under teacher sponsors. They determine the price of activity tickets and handle the sale of them. School parties and the annual banquet are planned and committees appointed by the Council. The public assemblies are under their direction. School problems are discussed in Council meetings and are frequently aired before the student body by means of a panel discussion.

The High School paper is considered a means for interpreting the school to the community, and a paper is to be issued by the grade rooms with the same purpose.

*Miles City.*—Miles City is located in an area where population is sparse and towns, on the average, are some forty or fifty miles apart.

*MONTANA* As the transportation problem became more acute in late summer, what was going to happen to the program of interscholastic athletics could be easily foreseen. "We, then," wrote Principal G. H. Gloege, "began to investigate substitute—or what might be termed 'better'—programs. We were fortunate enough to have on our faculty several men who had had World War, or subsequent military, experience. It was therefore decided to set up a program of physical fitness along with military training for all young men. The course is required, except in cases of schedule difficulty which would prevent graduation, where students must work to help support their families, and where parents object. We were able to sign up 188 boys out of a total of 243 enrolled in school. We

have four sections of boys, and two faculty members directing them. The groups meet five times a week for a full period. The program includes the essentials of military drill, calisthenics, and group games. The boys are divided up in groups according to the new manual, and student officers and 'non-coms' assist in the training. The plan is to rotate the student officers so that many of the boys will have a chance to help direct the program."

The physical education program for girls was stepped up, both in point of increased time, and increased numbers required to take it. In addition to the usual calisthenics, group games, and folk dancing, the girls are also learning the rudiments of drill. The girls have three sections meeting daily for a period each. In addition, each of the girls is studying first aid.

The program is an experiment at Miles City High School and the reaction is reported as very favorable. Boys like this type of training and are asking to drop other extracurricular work to get into it. Interscholastic athletics have not been wholly abandoned. Four games of football were scheduled, all within a radius of a hundred miles.

*Roswell.*—Victory would be materially speeded if one or more schools would follow the technique adopted by the senior high school at

*NEW MEXICO* Roswell. It has issued a challenge to all other three- and four-year high schools in New Mexico to compete with Roswell on a per capita basis in the purchase of Defense Savings Bonds and Stamps. Paul H. Deaton is principal of this school.

Other advices from New Mexico indicate that previous to the present emergency there seemed to be a tendency among the high schools of that state to

move forward the date for opening school to permit completion of the first semester before the Christmas holidays. Certain advantages, it is asserted, would accrue if the practice were generally adopted there.

The chairman of the New Mexico State Committee, J. W. Diefendorf, has accepted an appointment as director of the Schools at War Program for New Mexico and has been actively promoting the program since early October.

*Cleveland Heights.*—From Shaker Heights comes an original poem entitled "Dilemma of a School Teacher in War-Time," written by Principal E. E. Morley.

OHIO

It deals with the quandary which is troubling so many teachers; namely, whether they are contributing best to winning the war by doing effective work in the classroom, or whether they should volunteer for

specific war activity. The opening lines follow:

I've been bothered by certain misgivings  
That are troubling me these days,  
Just wondering if I should be serving  
My country in other ways.  
I'm only a classroom teacher  
But I read of the sacrifice  
That others are making and wonder  
If I am paying the price.

As the poem goes, the teacher's spirit sags as he or she contemplates the need for industrial workers and the personal sacrifices and dangers of those in the armed forces. Reassurance comes, however, by letter from a cadet flier whose present success the cadet attributes to earlier instruction and encouragement by the teacher. Thus vicariously the teacher serves.

The closing lines follow:

In this all-out war for freedom,  
I can be a working cog  
In the wheel of my country's welfare  
If I am—just a mere pedagogue!



## THE NAVY AND THE SCHOOLS<sup>1</sup>

WILLIAM EXTON, Jr.

*Lieutenant (j. g.) U.S.N.R.*

As HAS been said too often to need repeating here, modern war is not a conflict of man against man, but a conflict of men and machines against men and machines. It is no secret that war is now completely mechanized, whether fought in the air, on the ground, or at sea. And the instruments of warfare are among the most complicated products of human ingenuity that have ever been devised. In our competition with our enemies for the development of new instruments of warfare, we are constantly devising more and more intricate machines, whether they be for communication, for detection of enemy planes and vessels, for defense, or for the destruction of our enemy.

These machines must not only be produced in the first place and put in the hands of our armed forces, but once there they must be handled effectively and they must be maintained. Obviously, this requires training. To keep these machines running, to repair them and to handle them in combat, men must know their jobs and must know them thoroughly, since their own safety and the safety of our country depends upon their efficiency.

A modern anti-aircraft gun, for instance, is a very complicated machine. To learn how to care for it properly and to fire it accurately is not a matter of a day or a week or a month. It is a matter of months of intensive training, and this training in itself has as a pre-

requisite a certain amount of ability along related lines.

Just imagine that this platform is the bridge of a ship, and as I stand here the lookout reports to me that a bomber is approaching. They approach, as you probably know, at about three hundred miles per hour. This bomber is about to attack this ship and we know that if we do not get the bomber it is very likely to get us. We must hit him in a matter of seconds, though we are proceeding at a considerable speed in one direction and he is proceeding in a very much greater speed in an entirely different direction.

The mathematical relationships involved in hitting him include pre-determining his height, his speed, his direction, position angle, dive or climb angle and their relations to our speed and direction. All of these involve mathematical complications which would seem too great to solve in a few seconds, if it were not necessary for the preservation of the ship and the destruction of the enemy. Many of these computations, of course, are assisted by mechanical means and by tables; but the relationships involved are mathematical, and can best be handled by men who understand mathematics. Moreover, when the guns are not actually being fired but are being repaired, mechanics of all kinds must work upon them; and it is fundamental that a good mechanic has a knowledge of mathematics.

Your high schools—your secondary schools—can make a lot of difference in the number of planes downed, and in the overall efficiency of the Navy, by

<sup>1</sup> Read before the Fourth General Session of the Association, Chicago, March 28, 1942. Lieut. Exton was on duty in the Training Division, Bureau of Navigation, Washington, D. C. when he delivered this address.

teaching at least algebra, geometry, and plane trigonometry.

There are many activities in connection with both planes and ships where a knowledge of the physical sciences is also very desirable. This is so true that I believe it can be said that there are a very few places in the naval service, for enlisted men or officers, where a knowledge of the physical sciences and mathematics is not essential to really efficient discharge of duties.

Now the Navy cannot be expected to teach mathematics, chemistry, or physics. The teaching of such subjects as these is properly and normally the function of our educational institutions, in which we have always taken such great pride.

It is very hard for you to realize, even though the facts have been before you for some time, that the boys who sit in your classrooms will be your country's warriors in the future—perhaps in the very near future, perhaps in several years from now. But, unless you believe (and you will then be in the minority) that this war will end soon, you know that any healthy young man is likely to be involved in the thick of it before long. If such young men know mathematics, chemistry, and physics, they will have good reason to thank their teachers because they will be better enabled to serve their country and to win promotions. These achievements will follow because these young men will discharge their military or naval duties more satisfactorily and will be able to advance faster in their essential fields of endeavor. Without these sciences and without mathematics, they will be severely handicapped. Not only will they be far less useful to the armed services into which they will be inducted, but they will advance less rapidly and they will suffer the realization of being of less value in this crisis than they might desire.

One of the fundamentals of democratic government is the control of the educational process by civilians, and decentralized, comparatively local control at that. Each educational institution should properly be able to determine its own educational policy. And, believe me, there is not the slightest inclination on the part of the Federal Government, still less on the part of the Navy, to attempt to dictate to you in the slightest degree the subjects that should be taught or should be eliminated from your curriculum.

We hope that you, the buttresses of democracy at home, are continuing to develop the kind of minds and the kind of culture that must build the future of the United States. But we feel that it is still our duty to say to you that if you wish these boys now in your classrooms to be able to serve their country effectively in this hour of great need, then you can perform a vital and patriotic service by teaching them mathematics, chemistry, and physics.

There are other things that you can teach them, such as the International Morse Code, the ability to handle and maintain internal combustion engines, and the elements of radio and of electricity. All these things are being taught in some high schools, and are considered by many to be proper subjects for high school teaching. Remember, however, that it is useless and indeed almost destructive to teach subjects such as these badly. It is better not to undertake them at all than to undertake to teach them with inadequate equipment and with teachers having less than the desirable degree of mastery of them. Anything other than proper instruction in these somewhat technical matters will prove to be a handicap rather than an advantage.

We do not ask you to teach high school boys anything of a military or naval character. We do not ask you to



teach them anything that may not be of great value to them in civilian life. That military, that naval training they will receive when they enter the armed services. All we ask is that you give to them the educational background which will enable us to make of them better officers, better enlisted men, better gunners' mates, better machinists, better aviation machinist's mates, better fire control men, better ordnance men, and all the other classifications of enlisted men that we derive from our greatest resource, the young men of America, many of whom now are under your charge. When the war is over they will have nothing to regret for having taken these subjects; and the longer it lasts the more reason they will have for satisfaction in having had them and in applying them to their country's service. An illustrated folder has been prepared to show the connection between usual secondary school subjects and many phases of the naval service. Educators have found it of great interest, and have told us that it provides invaluable guidance.

The Navy has given a strong indication of its appreciation of the value of education by this arrangement: a young man seventeen years of age or over now enlisting in the Navy, will be allowed to complete his current high school year before being called to active duty.

And now for the colleges. We shall need many thousands of additional officers, most of whom will be drawn from the colleges—our largest reservoir of pre-selected manpower. The cooperation of the colleges is a matter of great importance to the development of our armed forces.

We have recently announced the V-1 program. Many of you already know about it, and I cannot possibly tell you enough in this brief address for you to

take away a complete knowledge of it. I can only urge you, if you represent an institution of collegiate grade or even a junior college, to find out all about it for the sake of your institution and for the sake of the young men attending there. Descriptive pamphlets have been prepared for your information, and are now available.

Briefly, the V-1 program makes it possible for a young man who is now enrolled in a college, who is now or is to be a freshman or a sophomore, to enlist in the United States Navy as an apprentice seaman, Class V-1. If he qualifies for this form of enlistment, he will be permitted to finish his first two calendar years of college at least, so long as he continues to qualify. The college, of course, must provide a curriculum acceptable to the Navy. The young man must also develop himself physically and otherwise justify his deferment and his continuing education. The latter must continue at his own expense. In his sophomore year he will be given a competitive examination of an objective type for the purpose of determining his ability to qualify in our V-5 or V-7 programs.

Men who qualify for the V-5 program, after completing the first two years of college work, are trained to be flyers in the United States Navy. This, we sincerely believe, is the finest, completest training in flying which the world affords today. Upon satisfactory completion of their flying course, they are commissioned as ensigns and draw the pay of that rank plus the extra allowances for flying. Young men who qualify or who wish to qualify for the V-7 program, continue their college career through graduation, and then, if they qualify, are enrolled as Naval Reserve Midshipmen, and are trained as officers for deck or engineering duty in the Navy. On graduation from this

training they are commissioned ensigns and are called to active duty.

It is anticipated that the Navy will accept eighty thousand enlistments in the V-1 program annually. The Navy will allow twenty thousand of them to enter V-5 training and fifteen thousand to enter V-7 training. Any of those accepted for enlistment in V-1 who have unsatisfactory records at college, who leave college, or who do not qualify in the competitive examination for V-5 or V-7, or who fail in V-5 or V-7 training, will be called into the Navy in an enlisted status.

This program requires cooperation by the colleges as well as by the students. The college must provide a curriculum acceptable to the Navy. This does not mean that you must substantially change your present program or curriculum, and it does not mean that the young man enrolled in the V-1 program may not elect many courses having no relation whatsoever to the naval service. You will find that the Navy's requirements are very flexible and very simple, and apply to only a minor fraction of the student's time. There are, however, what we regard as minimum requirements in mathematics and the sciences. And it is also requisite that they receive physical training so that when the Navy receives them, these men will be physically fit and in every way ready to fill their places in active service.

By cooperating in the V-1 program with the United States Navy, you are benefiting your own institution by insuring that the young men enlisted in that program will be able to continue their education in your institution. Further, you will be helping your country and you will be helping the Navy by assisting in the preliminary training of officers; and I think I need not remind you that the training of officers is a vital aspect of our eventual success.

I am not out of bounds as a naval officer when I go beyond this point to tell you that we are entirely conscious of the fact that when we have won the war there will be a post-war adjustment; and the Navy firmly believes that anyone capable of playing a successful part as a naval officer may have some contributions to make to that adjustment. Your young men, when they have served in the Navy and subsequently return to civilian life, may have such contributions to make. And we hope that the training that you will give them will help to fit them for that responsibility, just as we hope that their experience with the Navy will have a salutary effect on their characters and always be a source of great satisfaction to them.

I have been at great pains to point out that the Navy and the Federal Government do not wish to dictate any educational policy. It is sincerely hoped that each of your institutions will continue to develop its own particular character and make its contributions to American culture in its own individual way. Many people in and out of the naval service believe that the teaching of the principles of democracy, the inculcation of the spirit of the Constitution and of the Declaration of Independence, the fostering of the spirit of the Founding Fathers have been somewhat neglected in our institutions of learning in the past. We hope that these will be revived. We hope that present circumstances will bring about an American Renaissance of interest in the fundamental, moral, and spiritual things that develop character, and bring about the willingness to sacrifice one's self for causes in which one believes. The Navy is not an unfitting place, in times like these, for men of such character, and for men capable of developing such character.



Study, if you will, naval history; and study the lives of some of the men who have helped to make American Naval History. Just such men are alive today, commanding our ships and fleets; and it cannot be an unfortunate experience for boys now under your influence to graduate therefrom and enter the naval service, and come under the influence of the men who are now directing our Navy in the oceans of the world.

I know there is not a teacher who needs to be reminded of the responsibility of his profession; but training today is such a vital part of the equipment for war that I beg your leave to remind you of its relation to the service—to the United States Navy, and to the Army, the Marine Corps, and indeed all parts of the armed services now standing between our nation and the enemy.

## PRIORITIES IN HIGHER EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

Rev. WILLIAM F. CUNNINGHAM, C. S. C.

*University of Notre Dame*

If I were to dignify this paper with a title under the general topic announced on the program, "Religion in Higher Education," I would call it "Priorities in Higher Education," although, for the most part, it will be concerned with only one of those "priorities." I begin by calling your attention to the fact that this priority of religion in American life is one not only of importance, but also of time. It is asserted in those ten famous words of the Declaration of Independence, "all men are endowed by their Creator with inalienable rights," and it is included in the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 with specific reference to education: "Religion, morality and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged." Of course, if this statement in the Declaration of Independence on the origin of the rights of man and its application to education in the Northwest Ordinance are false assumptions; if it is true, as was stated in a document recently issued by a state Department of Education in North Central territory, that "Rights are social before they are individual"; if there is anyone here that believes that whatever rights man has he receives from the state, then he is totalitarian in the strictest sense of the word. It makes little difference whether he bases his ideas of the supremacy of the state on racial superiority as the Nazis do, or on

the superiority of the proletariat, as do the Communists, he stands in direct opposition to the American theory of government which makes man a creature of God, deriving his inalienable rights from his Creator and holds, "that to secure these rights, Governments are instituted among Men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the Governed."

In this concept, the state is the creature of the governed and not their creator; it is the servant of the people and not their master, and when it ceases to be a good servant it must be changed for a better. This is the very meaning of democracy. If we leave God out of this picture we have no rational basis for democracy. One may assert it on a sentimental basis—he may talk about the brotherhood of man, but this is meaningless unless it is based on the fatherhood of God. Once we abandon that, once we deny the spiritual part of man's nature and make him merely a highly developed animal, "an amoeba with acquirements," as Bernard Shaw put it, the law of the jungle is supreme. Might is the only right and such concepts as duty, social obligation, patriotism, and brotherly love are the rankest superstitions.

### THE FIVE PRIORITIES IN GENERAL EDUCATION

What does this mean for education? What are the priorities in education that should retain this position on all levels of general education from the kindergarten to the graduate school? I begin the answer to this question with the

<sup>1</sup> The first of two papers read on the topic, "Religion in Higher Education," before a meeting of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education at Chicago, March 26, 1942.



statement that man, the creature of God of the founding fathers' is a *rational animal* and the business of education is to make him *more rational* and *less animal*. How do we do this? There is only one way,—by developing his rational powers. What are the rational powers that make man *man*, that set him off from the animals of the lower species and make him supreme over the material universe? I answer that they are two, (1) the power of thought and (2) the power of expressing that thought in forms that preserve it for himself and communicate it to others. We see these two powers in the name of the Liberal College as it developed in this country during the past century: the "Liberal College of Arts and Sciences." The arts of expression fall into three great groups of which the Language Arts are by far the most important. The other two groups are the Fine Arts and the Practical Arts, one aiming at the creation and enjoyment of things beautiful, the other at making things that are useful. This latter group Norman Foester calls the "servile arts." They are the aim in vocational education, but the Liberal College, if it remains true to its name, is not concerned with them. The women's colleges are having the hardest time here with the inroads of home economics and secretarial studies.

The sciences also fall into three great groups, each one the depository of the knowledge of man in one of the three worlds in which man lives. First of all, the material world, the world of nature, gives us the Natural Sciences, astronomy, chemistry, biology, etc. Second, we have the human world, the world of man, and of human relations. For this group I prefer the name Humanistic Sciences since, for example, in Psychology they deal with man as an individual as well as a member of society. But more commonly they are

called the "social science." Finally, we have the group dealing with the third world in which man lives, the spiritual world. No other animal shares this with him. Here he is lifted above the animal level; he discovers his nature is freedom, his goal is God. These studies carry him beyond the physical world, beyond the physical elements of the human world; hence, we call them the Metaphysical groups: one dealing with those concepts man is able to arrive at by the unaided light of human reason, the Philosophical Sciences; the other based upon knowledge that is above the powers of human reason, knowledge that comes through divine revelation, the Theological Sciences.

Here, then, are the five priorities in general education in two great groups; namely, the Arts and the Sciences: (1) the Language Arts, (2) the Fine Arts, (3) the Natural Sciences, (4) the Humanistic Sciences and (5) the Metaphysical Sciences. I will never forget the experience I had some years ago when re-writing a college catalog, of discovering that Nicholas Murray Butler had made the same fivefold analysis, though in strikingly different terminology; that is, in terms of the "Spiritual Inheritance":

If education cannot be identified with mere instruction, what is it? What does the term mean? I answer, it must mean a gradual adjustment to the spiritual possessions of the race, with a view to realizing one's own potentialities and to assisting in carrying forward that complex of ideas, acts, and institutions which we call civilization. Those spiritual possessions may be variously classified, but they certainly are at least fivefold. The child is entitled to his scientific inheritance, to his literary inheritance, to his aesthetic inheritance, to his institutional inheritance, and to his religious inheritance. Without them all he cannot become a truly educated or a truly cultivated man.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> *The Meaning of Education*, pp. 25-26. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915 (revised).

Butler's analysis appears in the fourth column of the accompanying chart. together under the one general title, the "humanities."

## ANALYSIS OF THE LIBERAL COLLEGE CURRICULUM

The Two Human Abilities <sup>2</sup>	The Five Fields of Knowledge <sup>2</sup>	The Arts and Sciences	Butler's "Spiritual Inheritance" <sup>1</sup>	Hutchins' "Accumulated Wisdom" <sup>3</sup>	College Academic Groups <sup>2</sup>
<i>I. Expression through</i>	1. The Arts	Fine Arts	Aesthetic Inheritance	Artistic	1. Music and Fine Arts
	2. Language	Language Arts	Literary Inheritance	Literary	2. Language and Literature
<i>II. Thought about the</i>	3. Material World	Natural Sciences	Scientific Inheritance	Scientific	3. Mathematics and Natural Sciences
	4. Human World	Humanistic Sciences	Institutional Inheritance	Political	4. History and Humanistic Sciences
	5. Spiritual World	Metaphysical Sciences	Religious Inheritance	Philosophical (ethical)	5. Theology and Philosophy

<sup>1</sup> *Loc. cit.*

<sup>2</sup> W. F. Cunningham, *The Pivotal Problems of Education* p. 290 *et passim*. New York: Macmillan Company, 1940.

<sup>3</sup> Robert Maynard Hutchins, *The Higher Learning in America*, pp. 62-64. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936.

*No Friendly Voice*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1936, p. 30 *et passim*.

*The New York Times* (World's Fair Section), March 5, 1939, p. 50.

This is what the school must teach to give a general education. President Hutchins' "accumulated wisdom" is also fivefold if we group "ethical wisdom" under the general heading "philosophical" of which it is a part. This is in sharp contrast to the fourfold division adopted by Chicago University in its administrative reorganization in October, 1930<sup>1</sup>. In this arrangement the Natural Sciences were split into two sections, the physical and the biological sciences; the Humanistic Sciences retail their identity under the title, "social sciences," and the other three groups, (1) Language and Literature, (2) Fine Arts, and (3) Philosophy and Theology are all lumped to-

In the sixth column of the above-mentioned chart appears an illustration of the group system that colleges are now adopting almost universally to offset the excessive departmentalization of the past half-century. Such a grouping is inclusive of all fields of knowledge apart from the applied aspect which is not the business of the Liberal College. We begin teaching these great bodies of knowledge in the kindergarten and elementary school, though on these levels the approach to the immature mind of the child is psychological, not logical; that is, the approach is in terms of the child's capacities and interests and not in terms of the subject matter itself. Nature Study in the lower grades is replaced on the upper levels by the organized sciences, such as, physics,

<sup>1</sup> Chauncey P. Boucher, *The Chicago College Plan*, p. 8. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1930.



chemistry, and biology. This is the logical approach, and it is proper for the maturing mind of the college student. But all five of these great bodies of knowledge must be taught on all levels of general education if, in Butler's words, the pupil is to "become a truly educated or a truly cultivated man." Today, the academic groups within the college carry some such titles as those given in column six of the chart with Philosophy and Theology as the fifth group.

#### THEOLOGY A SCIENCE

The question now arises, Is Theology a science? For the Catholic, a decidedly affirmative answer to this question is given in the writings of the outstanding authority in the two fields, philosophy and theology; to wit, Thomas Aquinas. His masterpiece, the *Summa Theologica*, begins with this question. In the translation of the English Dominicans, the "Second Article" of "Question I, First Part" carries this title, "Whether Sacred Doctrine is a Science?" and gives this answer:

Sacred Doctrine is a science. We must bear in mind that there are two kinds of sciences. There are those which proceed from a principle known by the natural light of the intelligence, such as arithmetic and geometry. . . . There are others which proceed from principles known by the light of a higher science: thus the science of perspective proceeds from principles established by geometry. . . . So it is that sacred doctrine is a science, because it proceeds from principles established by the light of a higher science, namely, the knowledge of God . . . on principles revealed by God. (*The Summa Theologica of St. Thomas Aquinas*, Benziger Bros., 1920, vol. I, p. 4)

To a mixed audience such as this, however, I believe it is more worthwhile to call attention to the great educational classic in the English language which deals specifically with the question, Newman's *Idea of a University*. If this paper has no other outcome but

to stimulate some to read (I hope I should say reread) Discourse II, entitled "Theology a Branch of Knowledge," it will not have been in vain. Speaking of Newman in his *Education According to Some Moderns*, Charles Thwing, formerly President of Western Reserve University, says:

His interpretations [of the nature of reason as touched by the liberalizing force of education] are among the most moving ever given to the mind of a man to offer to his fellows. . . . His whole conception of the nature and functions, of the purposes and results, of that educational process is pregnant with lasting lessons to the mind and the conscience of man. (pp. 248-50)

The late President Coffman of the University of Minnesota once told me that he always kept on his desk a copy of Newman's *Idea* so that whenever a free moment presented itself he could open it at random and refresh his spirit with the lofty sentiments couched in the beautiful cadence of that master of English prose. There are two qualities that a classic in any field must have and which this classic possesses in an eminent degree, the power of thought and the power of expression, matter and form, stuff and style. Let me give you a passage from that second discourse:

Are we to limit our idea of University Knowledge by the evidence of our senses? then we exclude ethics; by intuition? we exclude history; by testimony? we exclude metaphysics; by abstract reasoning? we exclude physics. Is not the being of a God reported to us by testimony, handed down by history, inferred by an inductive process, brought home to us by metaphysical necessity, urged on us by the suggestions of our conscience? It is a truth in the natural order, as well as in the supernatural. So much for its origin; and, when obtained, what is it worth? Is it a great truth or a small one? Is it a comprehensive truth? Say that no other religious idea whatever were given but it, and you have enough to fill the mind; you have at once a whole dogmatic system. The word "God" is a Theology in itself, indivisibly one, inexhaustibly various, from the vastness and

the simplicity of its meaning. Admit a God, and you introduce among the subjects of your knowledge, a fact encompassing, closing in upon, absorbing every other fact conceivable. How can we investigate any part of any order of Knowledge, and stop short of that which enters into every order? All true principles run over with it, all phenomena converge to it; it is truly the First and the Last. In word indeed, and in idea, it is easy enough to divide Knowledge into human and divine, secular and religious, and to lay down that we will address ourselves to the one without interfering with the other; but it is impossible in fact. Granting that divine truth differs in kind from human, so do human truths differ in kind one from another. If the knowledge of the Creator is in a different order from knowledge of the creature, so, in like manner, metaphysical science is in a different order from physical, physics from history, history from ethics. You will soon break up into fragments the whole circle of secular knowledge, if you begin the mutilation with divine. (Section 3)

#### THE INTELLECTUAL AND MORAL VIRTUES

I have spoken briefly of the five priorities in general education and have quoted the two classic works which substantiate the position that religious knowledge, that is, the science of theology, is one of the two main branches in one of those great fields, the Metaphysical Sciences, which make up the curriculum of the Liberal College. There remains another question which merits treatment now. It is this: Is the educational program of a college or university limited to the curriculum or should those other activities which loom so large in the life of the student today, the co-curricular activities, should these too form part of their concern? This question introduces us to the distinction between the intellectual and the moral virtues. There is no argument about the first. If we follow Aristotle's analysis of the intellectual virtues, later adopted by St. Thomas, they are five and fall into two groups: the speculative and the practical. The speculative are three: (1) *science*, "the ability to demonstrate

universal and necessary truths and arrive at new and certain conclusions in the various branches of investigation"; (2) *understanding*, "the power to grasp certain fundamental, self-evident truths both theoretical and practical, for example: no effect without a cause"; (3) *wisdom*, "the power to put things together and coordinate the data of science and understanding so as to attain to the ultimate explanation of all things and see everything in human life in relation to our last end."

The two virtues of the practical intellect are (1) *art* and (2) *prudence*. They are distinguished by the "expressive Latin phrases: *recta ratio factibilium* and *recta ordo agibilium*. In plain English we would say that art is knowing *how* to do a thing, prudence knowing *what* to do."<sup>1</sup>

In contrast with these are the moral virtues, commonly called the cardinal virtues: (1) prudence, (2) justice, (3) temperance, and (4) fortitude or courage. Thus, prudence is both an intellectual and a moral virtue. It well illustrates the difference between the two. Prudence as an intellectual virtue means knowing *what to do* under such and such circumstances. Prudence as a moral virtue means *doing it*. Once this distinction is grasped we see the meaning of the statement that the university *as such* is not concerned with the moral virtues. The teaching situations within a university, the class room, the lecture hall, the library and laboratory, offer little opportunity for practice of the moral virtues. Virtue is a habit, and it develops through voluntary practice. The opportunities for practice which the instructional situations afford are those resulting in intellectual habits, that is, the intellectual virtues. This brings out the meaning of the statement,

<sup>1</sup> Thomas V. Moore, *Principles of Ethics*, pp. 54-55. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1935.



"Character is caught; it cannot be taught." The power of inspiring example and the activities outside the class room are those which result in the development of the moral virtues.

Emphasizing this distinction between the intellectual and moral virtues, President Hutchins in his book *No Friendly Voice* says that the latter, the moral virtues "are proper objects of elementary and secondary education. . . . They play only an incidental role in the higher learning" (p. 66). The Catholic position, on the other hand, may be stated in the term *distinction without separation*. If "Religion is the sum total of beliefs, sentiments, and practices, individual or social, which have for their object a power which man recognizes as supreme" as stated in part in Grandmaison's definition (*The History of Religion*, Catholic Truth Society, London, 1910), then it must pervade the whole of life, of student life as well as life in the world. We can teach the beliefs in the classroom and through this teaching make religion play its part in the development of the intellectual virtues, but the sentiments and practices for the most part must be developed through student participation in divine worship, at the same time submitting himself to a disciplinary regimen of which the very aim is the development of the moral virtues.

Let me illustrate this *distinction without separation* through the administrative organization now in operation in my own institution. In the early twenties following the war, with the great increase in student enrollment Notre Dame developed the administrative organization characteristic of the American university. In this development two Departments of Religion came into being, one with more than thirty priests teaching religious truth in the class room; the other concerned with the re-

ligious life of the student body. In today's terminology, this latter is really a department of guidance or, if you will, a "personnel office." The three men directing this work are the parish priests of college life. Each has an office in one of the dormitories, with circulating library and pamphlet rack, and together they issue the *Religious Bulletin*, a mimeographed news sheet delivered to every student's room every day but Sunday. They have nothing to do with enforcing the disciplinary regulations of the school. Just the contrary! If a student comes in conflict with the disciplinary authorities, the Directors of Religion are his refuge, not his judge or jury. They advise with him on any problem he may be facing, financial or scholastic, marriage or matriculation in another college, health or difficulties at home, girl friends and the members of his gang; their one aim in all this is to help the student lift his life from the level of the purely natural to that of the super-natural through submitting himself to a regimen of self-discipline in which frequent reception of the sacraments, particularly Confession and the Holy Communion forms a prominent part.

Does all this mean separation? Is a student's intellectual life divorced from his religious life? Just the contrary! The student's intellectual life must be an integral part of his religious life. No one has stated that better than Newman. The back of the title page of the Notre Dame catalog has carried this quotation for many years. But notice it is not from the *Idea*. Rather, it is taken from the first sermon, entitled, "Intellect, the Instrument of Religious Training," which Newman delivered before the newly founded university:

It will not satisfy me, what has satisfied so many, to have two independent systems, in-

lectual and religious, going at once side by side, by a sort of division of labor, and only accidentally brought together. It will not satisfy me, if religion is here, and science there, and young men converse with science all day, and lodge with religion in the evening. It is not touching the evil, to which these remarks have been directed, if the young man eat and drink and sleep in one place, and think in another: I want the same roof to contain both the intellectual and moral discipline. Devotion is not a sort of finish given to the science; nor is science . . . an ornament and set-off to the devotion. I want the intellectual layman to be religious and the devout ecclesiastic to be intellectual. This is not a matter of terms, nor of subtle distinctions. Sanctity has its influence; intellect has its influence; the influence of sanctity is the greater in the long run; the influence of the intellect is the greater at the moment. Therefore, in the case of the young, whose education lasts a few years, where the intellect is, there is the influence. Their literary, their scientific teachers really have the forming of them. Let both influences act freely. As a general rule, no system of mere religious guardianship which neglects the reason, will in matter of fact succeed against the school. Youths need a masculine religion, if it is to carry captive their restless imaginations, and their wild intellects, as well as to touch their susceptible hearts. (*Sermons on Various Occasions*)

I return now to the thought with which I began: "All men are endowed by their Creator with inalienable rights." This statement is a religious truth since it makes God the author of the rights of man. Varieties of so-called "natural-

ism," whether materialistic or idealistic, pragmatism or positivism, extreme individualism or extreme collectivism, all deny this truth, and from them, when logically carried out, stem all forms of totalitarianism which deify the state. From this truth come the four freedoms which democracy would preserve and extend to all mankind. In an emergency such as this, in wartime, we recognize that these freedoms cannot all be generously interpreted as they are during the time of peace. Hence, towards those who abuse these freedoms our attitude should be one of Christian charity but applied with a severe kindness instead of cruel torture, the technique of the totalitarians. But there is one place where those who deny this truth—which is the foundation of democracy—should not be tolerated; namely, the schools. Here youth can be robbed of their belief in God and faith in democratic institutions.

But, positively, we must do more than that. We must teach this truth in all schools beginning with the lowest to the very highest; in public schools and in private, in state universities and in those privately endowed, in Protestant colleges and in Catholic, in schools of Jews and those of Gentiles. In no other way can we have any hope that freedom shall be our heritage in the days ahead.



## RELIGION IN HIGHER EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

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THIS paper is concerned with the problem of defining objectives of a religious nature in the area of general education and with the task of developing satisfactory techniques for measuring student achievement in the field of religion. The paper will be presented in five sections, each dealing with one of the following questions: (1) What are the religious needs of students? (2) What aspect of our religious heritage do we wish to emphasize in the general education curriculum? (3) What curricular outcomes are the distinctive responsibility of the educator? (4) What are some of the methods for evaluating educational outcomes? (5) What is the relation of these proposals to the present crisis?

1. *What are the religious needs of the students?*—The difference between where the students *are* and where we believe they *ought* to be represents their need. Therefore, what knowledge and appreciation of our religious heritage is it desirable for Tom, Alice, John, or Mary to have—Alice who has just married a pilot in the navy, John who is majoring in the pre-medical sciences, and Mary who expects to teach or do social work? Should they know the writings of the Hebrew Prophets and the Gospels, the writings of Thomas Aquinas, Luther's essay on Christian Liberty, the Shorter Catechism, Paradise Lost, the Thirty-nine Articles, Lincoln's Second Inaugural Address, the findings of the Oxford and Malvern

Conferences? If not, with what men and movements should they be acquainted? There must be some content to our religious heritage. If we fail to answer this question it will be answered for us. Either they will have little or no knowledge and appreciation of the significant men and movements in our religious heritage, or accidental remarks, the hand of tradition, and the writer of textbooks will make these choices for us.

You may say that knowledge of a specific body of information, although important, should not be our first consideration. You want Tom and Alice to learn how to make discriminating judgments in this area of life. That is, you want them to be able to distinguish between democratic and undemocratic proposals, between Christian and pagan ideals and practices; to be able to detect the assumptions which underlie the writings of Machiavelli and Lincoln, of Nietzsche and Isaiah, to note the difference between fact and fancy in the editorials of the *Chicago Tribune* (assuming that such a distinction can be made).

Or you may feel that knowledge of historical movements and the ability to make discriminating judgments, important as they are, do not touch the heart of religious education. The essential thing, you say, is what John believes and what Mary cherishes. You want them to believe anti-Semitism is both undemocratic and unchristian, that it is God's will that America assume a responsible and sacrificial part in the building of a commonwealth of nations,

<sup>1</sup> The second of two papers read on this topic before a meeting of the Commission on Colleges and Universities at Chicago, March 26, 1942.

that the Church in spite of its limitations is worthy of their loyal support, that there is a power that makes for righteousness, that man is a child of God.

If any or all of these educational outcomes are important they should be given priority. But if they are to be given priority they must be identified, for if we fail to make our objectives explicit the outcomes of the educational process are defined for us by the *status quo*. In a secular society this means secularism.<sup>1, 2</sup>

If religion, therefore, is to become a significant factor in the curriculum of higher education, we must determine what religious values should be given priority.

2. *What aspect of our religious heritage do we wish to emphasize in the general education curriculum?*—Father Cunningham of Notre Dame University has presented a broad and comprehensive conception of our spiritual heritage. It is based on the following statement by Nicholas Murray Butler:<sup>3</sup>

If education cannot be identified with mere instruction, what is it? What does the term mean? I answer, it must mean a gradual adjustment to the spiritual possessions of the race, with a view to realizing one's own potentialities and to assisting in carrying forward that complex of ideas, acts, and institutions which we call civilization. Those spiritual possessions may be variously classified, but they certainly are at least fivefold. The child is entitled to his *scientific* heritage, to his *literary* inheritance, to his *aesthetic* inheritance, to his *institutional* inheritance, and to his *religious* inheritance. Without them all he cannot become a truly educated or truly cultivated man.

Father Cunningham's conception might be represented by an imaginary

circle. Let us assume that in this circle the curricula of Notre Dame and St. Catherine stress area A of this heritage, that Knox, Albion, and Macalester stress area B, that Miami and Iowa State stress area C, and X, Y, and Z institutions stress area D, and that K represents the overlapping area—the religious and spiritual aspects of our cultural heritage held in common by all these institutions.

Since we cannot escape inculcating some point of view it is our responsibility to determine in advance the particular cultural pattern we believe conserves and enhances our most significant religious values. It may be A, B, C, or D or we may discover, after we have made explicit the educational outcomes implicit in these patterns that K is "the pearl of great prices," or perchance K may turn out to be a synthetic product composed of glittering generalities with no tensile strength. Our first task is, therefore, to make explicit those religious aspects of our culture implicit in our present curriculum.

3. *What curricular outcomes are the distinctive responsibility of the educator?*—There are many religious outcomes, such as the deepening and disciplining of the inner lives of students and faculty, the development of the spiritual morale of the educational community,<sup>1</sup> meaningful participation in social and religious movements,<sup>2</sup> to which the formal curriculum directly and indirectly contributes, that can only be evaluated over a period of years. There remains, however, certain more immediate religious outcomes which can and should be appraised, and it is the responsibility of the educator to identify

<sup>1</sup> George F. Thomas, "Religion in an Age of Secularism," *Princeton University Bulletin*, 1940.

<sup>2</sup> Hugh S. Tigner, "Wanted: A Religious Education," *Christendom*, Autumn, 1941, pp. 557-66.

<sup>3</sup> *The Meaning of Education*, pp. 25-26. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1915.

<sup>1</sup> E. E. Aubrey, "Do Or Die: The Christian Colleges," *Religion in Life*, Autumn, 1941, 586-94.

<sup>2</sup> Clarence Prouty Shedd, "Religion in State Universities," *Journal of Higher Education*, XII (November, 1941), 408-17.



and develop means for their appraisal.

The identification of the religious outcomes in our present program is the obvious place to begin. These lie "in solution" in courses in literature, history, philosophy, religion, the social sciences; in the personal records; "extra-curricular" activities; and in the experiences of students and faculty. They consist of the information, skills and attitudes which contribute directly to our conception of the religious life. It is assumed that indices of these "forms of behavior" can be observed and appraised.

4. *What are some of the methods for evaluating educational outcomes?*<sup>1</sup>—For purposes of illustration let us consider methods for securing data on changes in student behavior in these three areas: the mastery of information—knowledge; the development of abilities; and the development of attitudes.

*Information—knowledge.* The study of the relations of secondary and higher education in Pennsylvania; namely, *The Student and His Knowledge*, presents one method for measuring knowledge. In their conclusions the investigators state,<sup>2</sup>

... there appears a common element which constitutes the essential single outcome of the inquiry as a whole. Each case demonstrates from a different point of view the possibility of defining in comparable terms the value and extent of an individual's knowledge appropriate for a certain purpose—in this case a general academic education. Not only can both unit and comprehensive indices be obtained at a given time; it has been shown that they can be made stable values with relation to

indices of knowledge obtained at other times. Growth or retrogression can thus be noted and a primary qualification of the individual for intellectual activities can be more or less faithfully determined.

These conclusions indicate the possibility of measuring the mastery of knowledge for "certain purposes," in this case for "a general academic education." If an institution decided to supplement the General Culture Test of the Cooperative Test Service with a unit on Religious Heritage, it could secure data on one important aspect of religion in higher education. In passing it may be pointed out that *the General Culture Test* presents part scores on General Science, Foreign Language, Fine Arts, History, and Social Studies. A comparison of scores on History and Social Studies secured by students in different curriculum groupings reveal significant data on the religious literacy of incoming students. Sophomore or senior scores would provide a basis for appraising changes.

A cooperative committee might develop one or more forms of such a test. Form A might deal with The English Bible or the Roots of the Hebrew-Christian Tradition; Form B might stress the Development of the Christian Movement; Form C might stress Contemporary Religious Movements; and Form D might deal with The Religious Basis of Democracy. It is obvious that the selection of items for these forms would require a definition of that aspect of our religious heritage we consider important for general education.

It is interesting to note that up to the present we have been satisfied with scores expressed in terms of the neutral classifications of subject matter such as Fine Arts and History and the Social Studies and that little or no effort has been made to discover to what extent students have a mastery of our demo-

<sup>1</sup> Ralph W. Tyler, "The Future of American Colleges," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XVI, 1940-41, pp. 322-24.

Ralph W. Tyler, "A Summary of the Trends in the Attack on College Instructional Problems," *Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Education*, XIII, 1941, 237-48.

<sup>2</sup> William S. Learned and Ben D. Wood, *The Student and His Knowledge*, pp. 66-67. New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1938.

cratic or religious heritage. One exception is the work of Professor Irwin Ross Beiler of Allegheny College. He has developed a test in the field of religion which is included in the testing program of the college.<sup>1</sup>

*Abilities.* Various efforts to measure the development of special abilities are recorded in educational literature. The recent findings of the Eight Year Study, promoted by the Progressive Education Association, present important data on evaluation instruments in this field. Exploratory studies of the Cooperative Study in General Education reveal that some of the most significant changes occur in teaching situations where instructors seek to develop specific skills or abilities, such as the application of principles in the natural or social sciences, ability to interpret data, and social understanding.<sup>2</sup>

If we consider the ability to discriminate between democratic and undemocratic assumptions, or ability to apply the principles of Christianity to social problems, or ability to detect anti-Semitic tendencies as important indices of maturing religious insights, it would be possible to adopt the foregoing techniques for purposes of appraising these or similar educational outcomes.

*Attitudes.* The work of Thurstone and Chave, and the recent findings of the Eight Year Study and of the Cooperative Study in General Education,<sup>3</sup> indicate the possibility of developing

instruments for diagnosing changes in student attitudes.

An exploratory form of an *Inventory on Belief* developed by the writer illustrates one method for securing data on patterns of student social and religious attitudes. Scores on this Inventory indicate the degree to which students agree with, or are uncertain or indifferent to, nine issues frequently discussed in the study of social and religious questions. Twenty statements expressing various degrees of acceptance of the points of view implied by each of the nine issues were selected and distributed in random order in the final form of the inventory. The statements were classified to reveal attitudes on the following questions: To what extent is God personal or impersonal? Is man free or determined? Is life with or without purpose? Is the Bible to be accepted literally or as other historical literature? Are the historic doctrines of the Christian church relevant or irrelevant to modern life? Is the church worthy of support? Can war be reconciled with the Christian way of life? Is the punishment, or treatment, of social offenders to be encouraged? Is a socialized economy to be encouraged?

By the use of machine scoring it was possible to secure a "picture" of the attitudes of the freshman and senior classes and a representative group of faculty in one institution. The analysis of these data led to a revision of items. The revised form was used in several institutions to secure a picture of the attitudes of the incoming classes. The analysis of group responses and the profiling of individual records proved valuable in course planning, counselling, and extra-curricular programs. In the light of further experience it is expected that these data will assist institutions to clarify their objectives.

<sup>1</sup> *Allegheny College Bulletin*, 1941, pp. 39-42.

<sup>2</sup> Progressive Education Association Tests: "Interpretation of Data" (2.51-2.52), "Social Problems" (1.41-1.42); and *News Letters of the Cooperative Study in General Education*.

<sup>3</sup> L. L. Thurstone and E. J. Chave. *The Measurement of Attitudes*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1929. Pp. xii + 96.

Progressive Education Association Tests: "Scale of Beliefs" (4.21-4.31), "Attitude Scale" (C41A).

M. D. McLean, *A Study of Social and Religious Beliefs*. Cooperative Study in General Education, 5835 Kimbark Ave., Chicago, Illinois.



The development of other inventories awaits the identification of issues, the selection of items, and the experimental refinement of the instrument. If a group of institutions should decide that certain attitudes, beliefs, or interests in the area of religion are significant educational outcomes it is possible through patient research to develop instruments in this field. Up to the present, however, attention has been focused almost exclusively upon the mastery of subject matter. We have no doubt been reluctant to experiment in this field partly because few instruments now available are adequate and partly because we associate with the term attitude "subtle emotional overtones which do transcend "objective" measurement. The work of those associated with Dr. Ralph Tyler is proving, however, that much more can be done than we are now doing to refine our objectives and appraise changes in student attitudes.

If instruments were developed to measure attitudes, beliefs, and interests no doubt there would be considerable difference of opinion regarding the adequacy of the first forms. It is obvious that they would not include data on many of the changes we consider significant. But they would provide us with more data than we now have.

To fail to act because such a procedure has limitations is to leave us with little reliable data on the changes in students in an area in which many institutions and in particular the church-related colleges maintain they can make a distinctive contribution to higher education. Failure to act leaves us with little reliable data to counteract unjustified generalizations based upon popular and irresponsible articles such as that written by Dorothy Thompson in a recent number of the *Ladies Home Journal*.

It is important to add that in the process of developing instruments we not only clarify our assumptions but we secure data on which responsible judgments may be made. It is not difficult to propose what institutions of higher learning ought to teach; it is quite a different matter to translate these generalizations into the kind of specific educational outcomes which can be taught. It should be added that the educational research proposed is not to be thought of as merely a matter of dead test items and impersonal scores—it is part of a living process which can shape the hopes and aspirations of generations yet unborn, and make our institutions not only instruments of the commonweal but channels of the grace of God.

5. *What is the relation of these proposals to the present crisis?*—But, you say, how can we begin such a program in a time like the present? It may be that what we have been unable to do in calmer days will prove to be a necessity in the not too distant future. None will deny that a new ordering of our social, economic, and cultural life is both imminent and imperative. Forces beyond our control are making our way of life of supreme importance to the whole world. The present crisis makes it abundantly evident that men and women will not rise to defend the nebulous cultural and religious aims found in many of our college catalogs. As we move deeper into the war and out into a period which will probably be characterized by widespread social unrest, if not revolution, the need for an explicit statement of the spiritual or religious aspects of our cultural heritage will become increasingly urgent. For unless our institutions of higher learning know more precisely than they do what in our heritage is the "pearl of great

price" we may find some Huey Long administration defining our cultural heritage for us.<sup>1</sup>

I realize that I am only "carrying coals to Newcastle" for you are aware of this need. We have not, however, thought through the implications of the present crisis for the curriculum. As we begin to do this, we are more likely to think against the backdrop of required courses in history, literature, philosophy, and religion on the academic stage rather than against the real world in which the students must live.

If we are to avoid this danger and make religion, in the words of President Robert G. Sproul, of the University of California, "basic to morals, central in American culture, able to save us from ourselves, and lead us out into nobility," we must state more precisely than we have thus far its specific role in the curriculum of general education.

In this paper the illustrations of ways in which we might clarify and evaluate religion are only intended to focus attention on the problem. It is hoped that the American Council on Education co-operating with various groups may develop a comprehensive study comparable to that which led to the publication of *Emotions and the Educative Process*. We need a companion volume on *Religion and the Educative Process* to amplify in terms meaningful to the educator the implications of this observation made in the foregoing report.

The keystone in the structure of the personality is placed finally for some persons only when they "get a stake in the universe,"

<sup>1</sup> Ernst W. Meyer, "Christian Education and the Post-War Period," *Christian Education*, XXV (March, 1942), 152-164.

John Knox, *Religion and the Present Crisis*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1942. (Note in particular the chapter by William C. Bower, "Education for a New World Order," pp. 126-141.)

when cosmic meaning has been read into the significance of their own lives. . . . Religion has supplied this final supporting keystone of faith to millions; compelling social motives have supplied it to others; and the present generation lauds the drive toward personal significance as it impels some scientists to unbelievable sacrifices in the attempt to wrestle the secrets of natural law from the material universe.

The role of faith in maintaining personal integration cannot be denied successfully even by those who want none of it; therefore, it hardly seems justifiable to discuss the curricula of educational institutions without mentioning the possibility of attempting to help young people crystallize their assumptions and establish their faiths by curricular means.<sup>1</sup>

Hocking has also said,

The great religious ones seem to have had a certainty that they were going along with the trend of the world. They have had a passion for right living which they conceived of as a cosmic demand. . . .<sup>2</sup>

6. *Conclusions*.—In a paper entitled "A Program for a Christian College," Professor Davidson has summarized the procedure we have been considering in the following manner:

1. The Christian philosophy of life must be defined in terms of specific information, attitudes and purposes which the college is willing to accept as its objectives in general education.

2. Learning experiences which tend to produce the desired information, attitudes, and purposes must be identified and then both classroom and extra curricular activities co-ordinated to provide those experiences.

3. The college program as a whole must be realistically evaluated from year to year in terms of the kind of attitudes, ideals and purposes it produces, not interpreted simply in terms of courses passed or information mastered.<sup>3</sup>

A carefully annotated syllabus on "Religion in Higher Education," pre-

<sup>1</sup> Danial A. Prescott, *Emotions and the Educative Process*, pp. 228 ff. Washington: The American Council on Education, 1938.

<sup>2</sup> William E. Hocking, "What Man Can Make of Man," *Fortune* (February, 1942), 147.

<sup>3</sup> Robert F. Davidson, "A Program for Christian College," *Christian Century*, LVIII (September 24, 1941), 1174-76.



pared by Stewart G. Cole and Harrison S. Elliott concludes with this question:

What should be omitted and what should be included in a policy and program which is aimed to give religion its rightful place in the curriculum, which provides for the cultivation of personal religion both among those reached and not reached by religious agencies, and which provides for the contribution of religion to the basic orientation of a student's college or university course?<sup>1</sup>

The recent study by Hyde and Leffler, "The Institutional Purposes of Seventy-Five North Central Colleges," states ". . . it seemed reasonable to assume that if a given institution had a specific and well-defined mission it should be able to point to some acceptable evidence that progress was being made in that direction."<sup>2</sup>

The purpose of this paper has been to suggest ways in which institutions of higher learning might implement the program proposed by Professor Davidson, answer the question raised by the Cole and Elliott syllabus, and have some acceptable evidence of progress in

achieving their religious aims as recommended by the Hyde-Leffler report.

#### A PROPOSAL

1. Since the accrediting policy of the North Central Association encourages the evaluation of institutional objectives;

2. Since a number of the member institutions of the North Central Association assume responsibility for introducing students to their religious heritage and all institutions recognize directly or indirectly the crucial role of religion in life; and

3. Since we are now confronted by the most far-reaching moral and spiritual crisis in our history, if not the history of mankind, it would appear logical to focus attention on this aspect of higher education at this time.

*It is, therefore, proposed that the Commission of Institutions on Higher Learning appoint a committee to formulate policies and explore the possibilities of evaluation in the area of religion in higher education.*

If such a committee is deemed wise, it is suggested that it cooperate with the Commission on Religion in Higher Education of the American Council on Education.

<sup>1</sup> Harrison S. Elliott, "Religion in Higher Education; A Syllabus," *Religious Education*, XXXVII (January-February, 1942), 5-22.

<sup>2</sup> Melvin W. Hyde and Emil Leffler, "The Institutional Purposes of Seventy-Five North Central Colleges," *NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY*, XVI (January, 1942), 298.

## GRADUATE INSTRUCTION IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

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EARLY in my work at Minnesota, I heard a story about two Swedes named Ole and Torsten who were walking down a railroad track when a fast train approached around a curve from the rear. Ole ran a few feet and then tumbled down the embankment along which tall and heavy brush had grown. Torsten, believing that he had a better chance to outrun the train in the open, struck out valiantly down the track. After the train had passed, Ole climbed back up to the track and walked hurriedly along. Presently he came to a shoe and then to a piece of plaid woolen jacket. Farther on he came to a cap and to an arm, and then to a leg. He stopped, reflected a bit, and said to himself, "I tank maybe someting happen to Torsten."

We who are interested in and dependent upon the quality of the product of the graduate schools of our teacher training institutions are beginning to ponder whether something is not happening to Torsten as these individuals take over their responsibilities as teachers or administrators in secondary schools.

I am going to attempt to face the problems squarely, realistically, and frankly. I am going to call things by their usual names and do no shadow boxing. But let me make this clear, there is no malice nor any artfulness in what I shall say and no intentional partisanship or biases though one can

never be sure of oneself in that matter. I intend to serve only one purpose; namely, to call attention to the existence of certain trends which dangerously impair the quality of the graduate education of those who are to constitute the staffs of our secondary schools. If I make any misstatements, they will, I assure you, be the result of ignorance and not of any willful attempt to misrepresent the situation. These introductory statements should be kept in mind particularly in the latter half of my remarks.

### GRADUATE OR ADVANCED PROFESSIONAL TRAINING

I want first to raise the question, do patterns and requirements of graduate study constitute a satisfactory basis for the education of teachers? To me the answer is clearly a negative one. For decades we have been struggling to do the impossible—to provide the best type of graduate education of teachers within the structure and pattern of requirements of the graduate school. It is time that we recognize the futility of this approach and do one of two things. We should either set up a graduate school of education or formulate provisions within the graduate school which will not only encourage but make possible curricular organization and other plans and requirements appropriate to the education of teachers, administrators, and other educational workers.

Regulations that prevail at present in most graduate schools were never clearly thought through in terms of the educa-

<sup>1</sup> The first of two papers read on this topic before a joint session of the three Commissions in Chicago, March 26, 1942.



tional needs of teachers and administrators. They were borrowed rather uncritically from German Universities of 1875 to 1900. They are calculated to produce highly specialized intellectuals interested primarily in research, and, if teachers at all, teachers for such schools as the German gymnasium with its highly selected student body and strong bias toward university preparation and the passing of examinations.

#### GRADUATE REQUIREMENTS OF QUESTIONABLE VALIDITY

The fields of specialization in American graduate schools are almost invariably coterminous with the administrative units of the institutions, such as the department of history, the department of physics, etc. As an institution grows, it splits into smaller and smaller segments of learning, thus providing not only more and more specialization but also more departmental chairmanships for the recognition of restless and ambitious professors. The plans of departmentalization are not necessarily, and in fact not usually, the plans which correspond to the responsibilities of workers in the lower schools. The high school teacher of science is rarely a teacher of geology only or of zoology only, and not usually a teacher of physics or chemistry only. He is almost always a teacher of science in general but even if he is not, he is a better teacher of physics if he knows some chemistry, biology, geology, astronomy, and the like. There is no such thing as a teacher of political science in a secondary school. It is clear that the education of a teacher requires spread even in the field or fields of concentration.

Vestigial remnants are also seen in the requirement by some institutions, of the acquisition of a reading knowledge of a foreign language by *all* graduate stu-

dents. Fortunately this relic is on the way to the museum where it belongs. Moreover, the requirement of a major and a minor with specified numbers of hours of credit in each is not only more or less arbitrary, but it may also be construed as evidence of the tendency of the academic mind to theorize and to make blanket prescriptions from the arm chair. Therefore it is clearly out of gear with the educational needs of teachers. No longer should graduate students be held to blanket requirements relative to the distribution of their course work. The needs of one group of teachers may call for considerable specialization, another for spread. Each may differ from the other in the number and proportion of fields involved to say nothing of additional variation for administrators and for counselors. In the further contemplation of "needs" emphasis should be upon long term rather than immediate requirements.

A serious limitation of the employment of the general academic graduate school for the post-graduate education of teachers is the discouragement it imposes upon the filling of bad gaps in the undergraduate preparation of the teacher or administrator. Most graduate schools will not even give credit on a 3 for 2 or 2 for 1 basis for work of this type which may be invaluable in the preparation of a given school functionary for the field in which he is working.

The playing at research necessitated by the requirement of a research thesis for a master's degree is a relatively useless vestige. How great is the national loss in time and money to students and institutions, the waste of paper and typing service to say nothing of professional services in individual conferences and otherwise in the make believe that the students are doing research cannot be conjectured. Any student

*interested and competent* should be *permitted* and in most cases encouraged to undertake a research project and to receive graduate *credit* for it, but to *require* all M. A. candidates to do a research thesis is about as sensible as to require all senior medical students to make a research contribution to medical science. This is particularly true for those who major in education. I single out education because of the small amount of undergraduate preparation usually received before beginning graduate work. The greater majority of masters' theses are never published and make no useful contribution to professional knowledge. Fewer and better researches would be more to the point.

No doubt there was a time when Ph. D. candidates were so few that it was wise to train for research all those going no farther than the M. A., but most of the easy problems suitable for attack by M. A. candidates have already been solved and the annual crop of Ph. D.'s has become prodigious, even prodigal. There is today little need of pressing prematurely into service the prospective M. A., who yearns not to be a researcher but a teacher or an administrator. Moreover, his previous training probably does not qualify him to do a very creditable project of investigation. To be sure, the teacher and the administrator need to be trained to appreciate and to read the results of research but not necessarily to be required to do it.

In planning graduate training for one engaged in educational work, we should keep our eye not so much upon tradition as upon present and future needs of those being trained; not so much upon blanket prescriptions as upon needs of individuals or groups of individuals. A fundamental graduate program and requirements for the same should be built first, upon the previous education and other experiences of the individual and

second, upon the needs of a worker in the field for which he is preparing himself. This means guidance as well as rules. It means flexibility as well as some uniformity. If there were space I would like to develop a little further the need for more and better guidance at the graduate level and the nature of some badly needed guidance service.

#### PRACTICAL GRADUATE PROFESSIONAL WORK

The height of standards in graduate schools is best measured by the quality of the work done by the student, not so much by setting up stunts and barriers which exclude, at least on paper, the weaker ones. I have had too much experience in institutions in which high sounding artificial standards were written in the catalogue to confuse and plague the students, but in which examinations were a pathetic search for something the student could answer; and too little experience in institutions in which selective stunts justified only by traditions were thrown overboard and in which lazy and incompetent students were identified early and sent on their way.

At the University of Colorado, under the sponsorship of a graduate dean who was not an academic politician and not afraid of his faculty but one who thought clearly and independently, we have attempted to build for the M. Ed. and Ed. D. degrees, sets of regulations built upon the type of philosophy I have attempted to describe. We started from the bottom and built, as nearly as one can, from the group up, independent of previous patterns. In the graduate faculty there developed little opposition to our proposals; in fact there were only two negative votes, probably fewer than if we had merely attempted to change some one or two requirements for the M. A. and Ph. D. degrees.



Prospective candidates for the Ed. D. are not permitted to do four or five quarters of work towards the degree before we decide about him as is the case in most institutions with the Ph. D. Within the past year we have already advised about a dozen possible students not to attempt it.

The reading knowledge of a foreign language is required only where the program or chosen field of work seems to call for it; e. g., in the graduate program for school psychologist or research director.

A year of continuous residence is not required. Under certain conditions all of the course work may be done in summer quarters, when our staff is augmented by a dozen or more outstanding men and women from other institutions and when our body of doctoral candidates will be large enough for seminars composed entirely of doctoral candidates in a given field and for real competition and mutual interstimulation. Four quarters of work or its equivalent must, however, be done in not more than three calendar years.

All of these requirements and opportunities grew out of considerations aimed at a high quality of professional graduate training and not at uniformity with any existing patterns or traditions. There are three comprehensive examinations at the conclusion of three stages of the candidate's study, each of which must be passed before he can enter the next stage. One of these is concerned with his general background in education and is taken during his third quarter of work beyond the M. A., the second during his fifth quarter covering his field of specialization, the third and final over his doctoral study and the field in which it is done, including all pertinent fundamental subjects. The sifting or delaying of candidates will be done on the basis of tests of knowl-

edge and abilities of recognized professional value to the candidate in the field of his work and not on the basis of general traditional and indirect criteria of little and questionable professional validity. He is encouraged to ask to be evaluated as a prospective candidate not later than the end of his first quarter's work with us. The evaluation serves not only to discourage those whose promise is not good but also as a diagnosis of his general and special background and to locate serious gaps and weaknesses.

#### REASONS FOR LOWERING THE QUALITY OF GRADUATE WORK

In the interest of protecting the school, its pupils, and the general public and of guaranteeing to it a high quality of professional service, we have for many years restricted the practice in a number of professions—law, medicine, teaching, dentistry, and nursing—to those who could give evidence that they met reasonable standards of prospective competence. As time has gone on the standards employed have changed, seemingly to insure a higher and higher degree of competence. The formulation and the administration of standards have centered in state agencies, though influenced by national organizations and by local opinion. In teaching, the granting of at least the lower grades of teaching certificates was for years administered in most states by counties.

Two types of standards have been employed; namely, examinations and certificates of training and experience. In recent years the use of examinations, formerly the principal criterion, has given way to certification on the basis of education and experience. Even if time permitted, it would be difficult to say just what were the more important considerations that led to the shift from examinations to certificates of training.

Without question the institutions of higher education were influential as was the desire of prospective teachers to avoid further examinations. The difficulties of administering and scoring examinations no doubt played a part as probably did the increasing recognition that professional examinations were relatively non-functional. It was argued that examinations seemed unnecessary in the case of people who had met the requirements for graduation from curricula in teacher training institutions. Shrewd college administrators were quick to realize the advantages that lay in the new method with respect to inducing attendance at their institutions. Students felt a greater security if certificates to teach were assured upon completion of prescribed curriculums.

As larger numbers of qualified teachers became available and as more young people went to college the standards in terms of number of years of college study gradually were raised. Although there still existed great variation among the states and within the states, by 1920 the prevailing standards were four years of college training for high school teaching and two years for teaching in elementary schools. In the last two decades, there has been a strong trend in the direction of raising the standards to five and to four years respectively. In some states these standards are already in operation. Many local employing boards insist upon them in other states. It is out of this background principally that our problems of relative standards of graduate work arise.

The picture is, however, not at all complete. In addition to the standards for certification and for employment, standards for accrediting schools have played an active part in stimulating principals and prospective principals to undertake graduate study, particularly since the North Central and the

Southern Associations of Colleges and Secondary Schools have required the Master's degree of principals of accredited high schools.

As the standards have been pushed upward, pressures have been consequently exerted upon the institutions preparing teachers. With the trends toward an extension of the period of education of elementary school teachers in the twenties, normal schools and teachers colleges began to offer four-year curricula and to award degrees. This tendency was encouraged by the desires of those schools to educate teachers for high school positions—a desire stimulated by the fact that there was a growing demand for high school teachers and a decreasing demand for elementary school teachers both arising out of the fact that elementary school enrollments were, unlike secondary school enrollments, rapidly approaching the saturation point.

Unfortunately the faculties of the normal schools had not been selected on the basis of the requirements of a degree-granting college. Much of the work offered previously had been of two types: first, professional courses—principally methods of teaching a particular subject at a particular level—and practice teaching; and, second, courses in subject matter which either were reviews or were on the secondary school level. Upon the faculty lists would be found the names of former city and county superintendents of schools, with little or no graduate training, selected at least partly for reasons of public relations and possibly to stimulate other administrators to cooperate in hope of being rewarded with a similar position. On the staffs were few with more than a year of graduate training, and a great many of those with more had not, for one reason or another, completed the requirements for the doc-



tor's degree. In addition there was a conspicuously generous proportion of culls from the current Ph. D. crop and youngsters getting their first college teaching experience.

Some did not even have their bachelor's degree, though as pointed out in 1921 by Bagley and his staff in the report of the Carnegie Foundation Study of the Teachers Colleges of a certain state, this defect was removed in a great many cases as soon as the institution began to award degrees. Financial and other limitations have operated to prevent many of these newly made colleges from developing their inadequate faculties to the levels usually thought of as appropriate for institutions offering courses and curricula leading to degrees.

#### PRESSURES UPON UNQUALIFIED SCHOOLS TO OFFER GRADUATE WORK

With few exceptions, those institutions were still in the stage of transition, i.e., from a normal school to a college, when there began to be felt the pressure to enter the graduate field. This pressure came principally from three sources: first, the nature of salary schedules placing a financial premium upon possession of the master's degree; second, the preference given to applicants for administrative positions who had a year of graduate training; and third, the standards of accrediting bodies for principals. It was not difficult for college heads to foresee that to the extent that administrators did their graduate work at a given institution, there would be a definite tendency for them to obtain their teachers also from that institution and perhaps to encourage high school graduates favorably to consider attending it. The loyalties of their own graduates would be at least divided. The temptation to undertake graduate work prematurely was probably not at all discouraged by those on their facul-

ties who were Ph. D.'s and who saw in this new development opportunities and possibilities for distinctions in their local institution favorable to themselves. These developments have taken place unevenly in various states. In some states strong teachers colleges have not yet offered graduate work. Other institutions of five or six hundred students or less with inadequate libraries, laboratories, and staff are granting what they call graduate degrees. There is, to be sure, a small number of teachers colleges well equipped, at least in the department of Education, to give a year of graduate work.

The picture has been painted in terms of newly-born teachers colleges rushing prematurely into graduate work for reasons associated inversely if at all with good standards of graduate work. By no means have they been alone in this doubtful development. The same considerations have motivated an equally large number of small liberal arts colleges, with staff in academic departments but little better qualified, and in education not so well qualified, to offer graduate work. In both of these types of institutions, their financial and instructional resources have been diverted from their principal responsibility; namely, undergraduate instruction; which in most cases they were discharging none too well. Indeed one cannot overlook the fact that in some large universities the standards and quality of graduate work leave much to be desired. In fact in a few of these the situation is alarmingly approaching commercialization.

Both in the secondary schools and in the larger institutions where some of the new M. A.'s come for further graduate work, we have had ample opportunity to test the product. Though there are exceptional cases of superior personalities and exceptionally capable

minds, the intellectual and professional calibre of the general run of the M. A.'s from the teachers college and the small liberal arts colleges, has included a generous proportion of people who seem to have profited little by graduate study, and of individuals of less than average professional and intellectual abilities and personalities.

#### REQUISITE FOR GOOD GRADUATE WORK

For a high type of graduate work, certain conditions are almost essential. One or more of them are absent in many institutions now attempting to do graduate work, and in some they are all absent. Prominent among these may be mentioned the following:

1. A faculty composed largely of men and women with the training implied by the possession of the doctor's degree, including at least one man of unusual ability in each department.
2. A morale among the faculty which gives use to high standards and which can be present only when there is no pressure to "pass" graduate students.
3. A selected student body which can maintain a pace definitely beyond that for undergraduates.
4. A sufficiently large number of bona-fide graduate students which will permit specialization on the part of the graduate faculty and which will result in competition and mutual interstimulation among the students.
5. A reasonably light teaching load on the part of the graduate faculty which will permit individual attention to graduate students, much continued study and reading, and preferably some research.
6. An adequate library of the more specialized and advanced and incidentally more expensive books and periodicals.
7. Adequate laboratories.
8. The essential characteristic of a good graduate school is an atmosphere in which scholarly advanced work and the spirit of investigation flourish naturally.

To realize how far some institutions fall below these standards, one has but to visit a number and study them with respect to these things.

It seems clear to me that the general average of the quality of graduate work has on the whole suffered material deterioration. The requirements formulated by boards of education concerning graduate study by secondary school teachers and administrators are tending to become meaningless. The payment of extra salaries to high school teachers with masters' degrees can hardly be justified in cases where the graduate work done is of the character that may be expected in many institutions. It is a breach of good faith, it is an unethical sham and a pretense unworthy of any important profession to which law, medicine, dentistry, and engineering would not stoop and which will certainly, within a decade or so, become obvious to the general public. It is becoming a sort of academic medicine man prestidigitation which will soon lose its power to awe the uninitiated.

I object to any requirement which operates to increase the number of years required to qualify for any professional position unless it seems certain to increase professional competence markedly. In the first place, it is a waste of time and public money. In the second place, it tends to bar the way to the profession or to professional advancement to those on the lower economic levels.

There is little promise that the situation will correct itself. In fact, the stars seem to signify that if something is not done definitely to correct it, it will grow worse rather than better. For the past decade or so we have been reaching the saturation period with respect to college enrollments in teacher training schools and colleges. The combined elementary and secondary school population has begun to decline. Teachers are staying in the profession longer. There are fewer vacancies. In the last twenty years the large numbers of re-



cruits necessary to meet expanding enrollments have been made up of young people who will not be retiring soon for reasons of age.

Because of the fact that college enrollments have reached their peak, competition for students in teacher training institutions has become increasingly keener. These conditions do not encourage the raising of standards of graduate work. Students are coming to summer school in larger numbers with the impression that paying the fees and doing work of a casual nature should meet the requirements. At least they have heard that this is the case in some institutions, not all of which are teachers colleges or small colleges of liberal arts. Some rather large universities, dependent in great measure upon student fees, seem to be going after all the business they can get and keep—one of the sorriest spectacles indeed in the history of American education.

Many of these would-be graduate students though of excellent native ability have not yet acquired good work habits and an adequate concept of appropriate standards of work and attainment. Some of them received bachelors' degrees in institutions where low standards prevail and find it most difficult to make the adjustments they are called upon to make. Some of them were never intended to become graduate students. A considerable proportion of the smaller institutions feel that they simply cannot afford to discourage and consequently to lose too many students. It is a matter of dollars and cents, of legislative appropriations which are usually in proportion to student enrollments. Such considerations have also come to affect at least some of the larger institutions.

#### HOW TO MEET THE SITUATION

I question whether the situation can be adequately improved without aid

from outside the individual institutions. The institutions must be saved from a competitive situation with which they cannot cope independently. Institutions of high grade graduate work need to be protected from unfair competition. Bad money drives out good! There was a day when the secondary school wavered between becoming a reputable institution or taking permanently the role of a poor substitute, a thing of poor quality and of doubtful value. Two things saved the day: the accrediting agencies and the independence of public high schools from pressures incident to getting a student body. Today graduate instruction is threatened with the latter and has not the aid of the former.

I do not know what agency should accredit institutions for graduate work. I believe, however, that it should be begun quickly. The elementary and secondary schools and all teacher-employing agencies are in sore need of some guarantee of quality in the training of teachers and administrators which they cannot furnish for themselves any more than lay people could furnish themselves, unaided by licensing bodies, guarantees of competent medical training and service. I believe that agencies having to do with accrediting and otherwise maintaining and improving the quality of secondary education should consider seriously setting up or petitioning some powerful national agencies to formulate standards by which institutions may be judged. A list of schools meeting those standards could then be published.

Perhaps the American Council on Education or the Association of American Universities might be induced to undertake the badly needed service of leadership among all colleges offering or contemplating offering graduate courses and awarding graduate degrees in the attempt to set up a cooperative ac-

crediting agency from among the institutions themselves which will serve to identify those institutions in which graduate training of a satisfactory quality can be given.

It may be that the National Teachers Examination Service may be employed by principals, superintendents, or boards of education and accrediting associations to the end that all those who wish to register their Master's degrees for the purpose of increased salaries or of accreditation would be required to take appropriate examinations in their fields of graduate specialization.

I am sure that many possibilities should be studied carefully and that soon some plan be put into effect to gain back some of the group which we are losing so rapidly.

In summary, I have tried to make

these points: (1) The center of gravity of the quality of graduate training of teachers and administrators is drifting to lower levels by reason of conditions beyond the control of the individual college; (2) there should be set up immediately an agency for accrediting schools for graduate work; (3) graduate training of teachers and administrators should be given under plans of organization and regulation which look forward to professional needs and not backward to the customs of nineteenth century German universities. Such action would promote the adaptation of graduate training to the needs and background of the teacher, unhampered by abstract and blanket requirements of patterns which have little relation either to professional needs or to quality of work done.



## GRADUATE INSTRUCTION IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

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THE problem of defining the requirements for higher degrees, and of evaluating the quality of instruction leading to such degrees, is not new. It dates back to the adoption of requirements for the Master's or second degree at Harvard University in 1642. It was not, however, until near the close of the nineteenth century that any attempt was made to develop a common agreement among institutions of higher education with reference to the basis upon which higher degrees should be granted. In 1896, the Federation of Graduate Clubs, representing some twenty colleges, assembled at Baltimore, passed resolutions expressing the sense of that convention as follows:

1. That it is inexpedient for any institution to give the same *degree honoris causa* as is granted in a regular course of examination.
2. That the Master's degree should never be granted except for graduate study of at least one year's duration tested by adequate examination.
3. That the minimum requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy should be as follows:
  - a. The previous attainment of a Bachelor's degree or equivalent.
  - b. The completion of at least two years of resident graduate study, not more than one year, however, to be required in residence at the institution conferring the degree.
  - c. Adequate examination and a thesis embodying the results of original research. Such thesis should bear the written acceptance of the professor or department in charge of the major subject,

and should be accompanied by a short biography of the candidate.

- d. That the degree, Ph.D., M.D., and Pd.D should never be given *honoris causa* or in *absentia*. L.H.D., S.T.D., D.D., LL.D., D.C.L., Mus.D. are recognized as honorary degrees.

The influence of this statement is still apparent in the practices affecting the master's and Doctor's degrees in many of our colleges and universities.

The subject of graduate instruction is of major interest today because of the increasing emphasis given it in our whole system of education. The competence of college and university faculties is judged in part on the basis of the higher degrees held by the faculty members. Administrators of junior colleges generally regard the Master's degree to be the minimum preparation for teaching positions in their institutions. A number of city school systems now require the Master's degree either for high school teaching or for promotion beyond a designated salary level. Our own Association has prescribed the Master's degree for administrative positions in member high schools. A number of states, some in the territory of the Association and some outside, have given weight to the importance of the Master's degree by prescribing it for teaching positions in junior colleges and for administrative positions in public schools. Need we wonder that the simultaneous impact of these influences has led a number of institutions, most of whose graduates seek teaching and administrative positions in the public schools, to

<sup>1</sup> The second paper read on this topic before a joint session of the three Commissions in Chicago, March 26, 1942.

extend their programs to the graduate level?

In brief, the situation is this: The minimal educational requirements are being raised with a view to securing more competent teachers, principals, and superintendents. At the same time, higher institutions with limited staff, library, instructional facilities, and financial resources, are undertaking advanced instruction but are doing it so unsatisfactorily as to defeat the very purpose of these increased educational requirements. This becomes a special problem for the Association when institutions that have been admitted to membership on the basis of their competence to offer undergraduate instruction embark on a program that reaches beyond the level of a Bachelor's Degree. The decision on the part of many institutions of all types to enter the field of graduate, or more properly postgraduate education, and the desire of many others to do so, brings us face to face with the important and difficult problem of attempting to define satisfactory criteria by which to judge their competence to give graduate instruction. The problem is of such importance that in the last few years it has been the subject of discussion and study in a number of the important educational associations; among them the Association of American Colleges, the American Association of Universities, the American Council on Education, the American Association of University Professors, and our own Association. It is so complex, however, that thus far there have been derived from all of these simultaneous and cooperative deliberations no clear-cut criteria by which to judge the quality of graduate work or the competence of an institution to offer it.

May I review very briefly the consideration that the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education has given

to this subject and the policy that is followed at present. In 1935, the following action was taken: "An institution that expands its program of work when its rating is low shall be subject to consideration by the Board of Review for the purpose of determining whether or not a survey should be made." The gist of further discussions of this topic during the following year is reflected in the following excerpts from the minutes of several meetings of the Board of Review: "It was the consensus of the Board that strong institutions may well grant this degree (referring to the Master's degree) but when weak institutions attempt it, they should be checked." "The offering of the Master's degree by an institution that did not formerly offer that degree constitutes a change of objectives." To give more precise meaning to the point of view expressed by the Board the policy was adopted providing that if an institution expanded its program to offer an advanced degree it should be subject to a survey.

After applying this policy in several specific situations, the statement was modified in 1937 to read, "that an institution that expands its program of work; for example, by the addition of graduate work, professional curriculums, or new degrees, shall be subject to the consideration by the Board of Review for the purpose of determining whether or not a survey should be made."

In the same year, 1937, Dean E. B. Stouffer, of the University of Kansas, presented an informative and incisive analysis of "conditions surrounding the offering of the Master's degree." He showed in his report that ninety-one institutions holding membership in the Association; that is, 40 per cent of the membership, announced programs leading to the Master's degree. In his study he compared forty institutions that had recently entered the graduate field with



thirty whose graduate programs were already well established. I shall not repeat this comparison in detail because it is available in the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY for October, 1937. Suffice it to say, that there were marked differences between the two groups of institutions in percentile ranks with reference to the percentage of the faculty holding the Doctor's degree, the number of months spent in graduate study, the educational expenditure per student, and the library holdings of reference books and periodicals.

In the course of his report, Dean Stouffer pointed to the complexity of the problem when he said, "To attempt to determine what institutions should give graduate training for secondary school teachers seems futile until we have better agreement than at present as to what is the desirable character of the training. . . ." "The considerable confusion over the graduate program in many institutions arises from the fact that there is not, as yet, sufficient agreement or even sufficient information to make it possible to formulate a definite plan for the training of secondary school teachers at the graduate level. Until the cause of this confusion is removed, it will be difficult, if not impossible, for this Commission or any other body to determine how well a college or university is conducting its graduate work."

Dean Stouffer concluded his report with the following recommendation:

1. That the Commission adopt one of two alternative policies: (a) to deny explicitly that membership in the North Central Association implies approval of an institution's graduate work, or (b) to accept responsibility for a member institution's graduate work just as responsibility for all other activities of the institution is now accepted.

2. That this Commission, if the second alternative is adopted, appoint a committee to make a study of graduate work for the purpose of enabling the Commission to pass upon the quality of the work conducted by

its members at the graduate level. As such a study will immediately involve the difficult question of the graduate training of the secondary-school teacher, it is suggested that the Commission on Secondary Schools be represented on the committee. This committee should be free to cooperate with other committees or organizations making similar studies.

3. That, until such time as the Board of Review finds itself in a position to make recommendations concerning the quality of the graduate work conducted by a college or university, the published list of member institutions of higher education be accompanied by a statement that membership does not imply approval of graduate offerings. [Perhaps this is a suggestion rather than a recommendation.]

With reference to the alternatives presented in the first recommendation, the Commission on Higher Institutions has continuously taken the position that for the purposes of accreditation the whole program of an institution shall be considered. That is to say, the Commission continued its established policy which was the second established alternative in recommendation No. 1.

On the basis of information presented in Dean Stouffer's study, and of experience in dealing with certain institutions whose standing in the Association was called into question because they had recently entered the field of graduate instruction, the Board of Review made its policy somewhat more precise by deciding, in 1938, that institutions that have been made pronounced expansions in their programs, such as offering graduate work, should be challenged if their percentile ranks were low and had not improved during the last few years. On the other hand, if an institution made a good showing with some improvement in its percentile ranks, expansion should not be questioned.

You will note that there was still no definition in this statement of what should be regarded as low percentiles. Nor was there an exact statement of what precise items in an institution's

pattern map should be considered as most significant in judging its competence to offer graduate work. As a means of defining further the criteria to be employed, the Board of Review appointed a special committee in July, 1938, to designate the significant criteria for the evaluation of the competence of an institution to include graduate instruction in its program. After reviewing in some detail the data that were available concerning member institutions, the Committee recommended that the following criteria be of major significance in judging the competence of an institution to carry on graduate work:

1. Faculty competence judged by the percentile rank of the institution on Doctor's degrees held by the faculty and number of months spent in graduate study. These two qualifications to be considered jointly. If an institution ranks low in both items, the competence of its faculty should be questioned.

2. The percentile rank of the institution in holdings of library reference books.

3. The percentile rank of the institution in holdings of periodicals.

4. The percentile rank of the institution in expenditure for books.

5. The percentile rank of the institution in educational expenditure per student.

The policy of the Commission on Higher Institutions as it now stands embodies the various actions taken by the Commission and the Board of Review, and includes the recommendations of the special committee appointed to define criteria. Briefly, it is as follows:

1. Any member institution offering graduate work shall be subject to a survey at the discretion of the Board of Review to determine its adequacy for such work: (a) if it offers work leading to the Master's degree when it falls below percentile 60 on those criteria regarded significant for graduate work; or (b) if it awards a Doctor's degree when it falls below percentile 80 on those criteria significant for graduate work.

2. A minimum of one academic year of residence shall be required. When the work is done during summers, adjustment may be

made but the actual residence shall not, under any circumstances, fall below twenty-four weeks.

3. Correspondence courses shall not be accepted toward a graduate degree.

4. Course work done by extension shall not be accepted in excess of one quarter of the required program.

I have reviewed at some length the consideration given to the evaluation of graduate instruction in institutions that are members of the North Central Association for the purpose of showing that the Commission on Higher Institutions has been vitally concerned with this problem and that it has made some progress in defining criteria that may be employed with some degree of confidence.

It may be of more than passing interest to the members of this group to know how the present institutional membership of the Commission on Higher Institutions is distributed with reference to levels of instruction and how various groups of institutions stand with reference to some of the criteria now employed in judging their competence to offer graduate instruction. Table I presents a summary of the data. Of the 302 institutions belonging to the Association at present, forty-seven, or 15.6 per cent are junior colleges; one hundred sixty-nine, or 56 per cent grant only the Bachelor's degree; fifty-one, or 16.9 per cent grant the Master's degree as the highest degree; thirty-five, or 11.6 per cent grant the Doctor's degree as the highest degree. Inasmuch as we are primarily concerned in this discussion with degree-granting institutions, let us see how the three groups just referred to stand with reference to the criterion expenditure for students, based upon financial data submitted to the secretary's office for the fiscal year 1939-40. The median percentile rank for institutions offering the Bachelor's degree is 34. This percentile rank repre-



sents an educational expenditure per student of \$202. The median percentile rank on educational expenditure per student for institutions offering the Master's as the highest degree is 59, or \$260. For institutions offering the Doctor's degree it is 84, or \$344 per student. It will be noted that in setting the percentiles 60 and 80 as the minimum acceptable levels for institutions offering Master's and Doctor's degrees respectively, we are saying with reference to educational expenditure per student,

on the number of months spent in graduate study are 61.5, 70, and 83 respectively.

It will be recalled from the Statement of Policy with reference to the evaluation of graduate work which I summarized above that considerable importance is attached to the adequacy of the library. The criteria used to judge the adequacy of libraries on a comparative basis are three: Holdings of Reference Books, Holdings of Periodicals, and Expenditure for Books. We have

TABLE I

MEDIAN PERCENTILE RANK OF INSTITUTIONS OFFERING THE DOCTOR'S, MASTER'S, OR BACHELOR'S DEGREE ON FOUR CRITERIA CONSIDERED SIGNIFICANT FOR GRADUATE WORK

TYPE OF INSTITUTION	MEDIAN PERCENTILE			
	Expenditure per Student	Percentage of Doctor's Degrees	Graduate Study	Expenditure for Books
Doctor's degree highest granted. . . .	84	91.5	83	90
Master's degree highest granted. . . .	59	73	70	64
Bachelor's degree highest granted. . .	34	53	61.5	38

that an institution undertaking a Master's or Doctor's program should not fall below the level of the median institution in the group of institutions offering instruction at the same level. This does not seem to be an unreasonable expectation.

The data now on file in the office of the Secretary regarding the percentage of Doctor's degrees held by faculty members in institutions of the North Central Association, and the number of months spent in graduate study, are not so recent as are the financial data.

It will be noted from Table I that the median percentile rank on percentage of the faculty holding Doctor's degrees is 53 for institutions offering only the Bachelor's degree. For institutions offering the Master's as the highest degree, it is 73, and for institutions offering the Doctor's degree, it is 91.5. The corresponding median percentile ranks

never been entirely satisfied with the checklists which we have used in determining the holdings of reference books and periodicals. The expenditure for books, on the other hand, is a reasonably accurate and comparable measure of the support institutions give to their libraries. When compared on the basis of expenditure for books, the median percentile rank of institutions in the three categories already enumerated are as follows: institutions offering only the Bachelor's degrees, 38; institutions offering the Master's degree, 64; institutions offering the Doctor's degree, 90. In terms of annual expenditure a percentile of 38 represents \$1,460; 64 represents \$2,915; and 90 represents \$7,308.

From the data used in this analysis we are able also to indicate the percentage of the institutions in each of the three groups that stand above the

minimum prescribed percentile ranks on the criteria considered significant for graduate work.

Slightly more than one-half of the institutions now offering instruction leading to the Master's degree, and only the Master's degree, fall below 60 on the item educational expenditure per student. Considering the institutions offering the Doctor's as the highest degree, thirty-five in all, 55.6 per cent are above percentile 80 on expenditure per student, and 73.7 per cent are above percentile 60, the minimum set for institutions offering the Master's degree. In this group of institutions then, almost one-half are below percentile 80, the minimum set for institutions offering the Doctor's degree. In fact, somewhat more than one-fourth of these institutions fall below the percentile 60, the minimum that has been set for institutions offering the Master's degree. A similar comparison relative to the percentage of Doctor's degrees held by the faculty shows that 43 per cent of the undergraduate colleges have faculties which in terms of percentage holding the Doctorate would be competent to offer Master's work while a little less than one-fourth of the institutions now offering the Master's degree, but no work beyond it, fall below percentile 60 on percentage on the same criterion. On the same basis 37 per cent of the Master's degree institutions have faculties competent to offer instruction above the Masters' level, while about 20 per cent of those now offering Doctor's work fall below percentile 80.

The picture does not change materially when the comparison is made among these institutions on the criteria, months spent in graduate study and expenditure for books. I shall not take time to go into a detailed analysis with reference to these.

It is apparent from the data that we

have available, that a considerable percentage of the institutions now offering graduate work leading to the Master's or Doctor's degrees respectively fall below the minimal criteria that afford evidence of the competence of an institution to offer graduate instruction at these respective levels. Further, it appears that there are, among the institutions now offering the Bachelor's degree, some that stand well above the prescribed minima on one or more of the Criteria, and upon the basis of these criteria some would undoubtedly be regarded as competent to offer more advanced instruction. This is not to be construed as encouragement to institutions now offering only the Bachelor's degree to undertake more advanced instruction. The percentage of institutions standing above the minimal percentiles on all of the criteria already referred to is comparatively small.

I realize that it is exceedingly difficult to present statistical data so as to make them at all intelligible when they are presented orally. May I beg your endurance, however, while I attempt, very briefly, one other form of analysis. In Tables II and III I have endeavored to show how institutions of various kinds now offering graduate instruction stand on the criterion, educational expenditure per student.

It will be noted in Table II that of the twenty-three state supported institutions, not including one teachers college, now offering work leading to the Doctorate, twelve or 52.2 per cent are above percentile 80. Of the nine private institutions, six or 66.7 per cent hold a similar rank. The one teachers college in this group falls so far below the prescribed minimum as to call for further investigation of its competence to offer work at this level.

The data in Table III show that 41.7 per cent of the state institutions other



than teachers colleges, 55.6 per cent of the private institutions, 57.1 per cent of the teachers colleges and none of the municipal institutions rank above percentile 60 on educational expenditure per student.

confronted with a problem of considerable magnitude in attempting to evaluate the competence of institutions to offer graduate instruction on the basis of the criteria that have been adopted. This fact becomes clearer when in view

TABLE II

PROPORTION OF VARIOUS TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS GRANTING THE DOCTOR'S DEGREE ABOVE THE PERCENTILE 80 AND THE MEDIAN PERCENTILE FOR EACH GROUP ON EXPENDITURE PER STUDENT

TYPE OF INSTITUTION	NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS	INSTITUTIONS ABOVE PERCENTILE 80		MEDIAN PERCENTILE
		Number	Percent	
State.....	23	12	52.2	84
Private.....	9*	6	66.7	94
Teachers college.....	1	0	0.0	45
Municipal.....	1	1	100.0	81
All institutions granting the Doctor's degree.....	34	19	55.9	84

\* One private institution for which there is no information is omitted.

Looked at in terms of the financial resources for their educational programs, the percentage of state and municipal institutions, excepting the teachers colleges included in Table III, which fall short of meeting the prescribed minimal percentile is larger than the percentage of private institutions.

It should be apparent from the foregoing data that the Board of Review is

of the fact that since January, 1936, the Board of Review has asked for partial or complete reports from sixty-two institutions in connection with their programs of graduate work. Of these sixty-two institutions, thirty furnished data which satisfied the Board of Review that they were competent to offer graduate instruction, even though in some instances they fell slightly below the prescribed per-

TABLE III

PROPORTION OF VARIOUS TYPES OF INSTITUTIONS GRANTING THE MASTER'S DEGREE ABOVE PERCENTILE 60 AND THE MEDIAN PERCENTILE FOR EACH GROUP ON EXPENDITURE PER STUDENT

TYPE OF INSTITUTION	NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS	INSTITUTIONS ABOVE PERCENTILE 60		MEDIAN PERCENTILE
		Number	Percent	
State.....	12	5	41.7	57.5
Private.....	27*	15	55.6	69
Teachers college.....	7	4	57.1	61
Municipal.....	4	0	0.0	43
All institutions granting the Master's degree.....	50	24	48.0	59

\* One private institution for which there is no information is omitted.

centiles on some of the criteria. Concerning such cases no further questions were raised. After discussing the matter with the Board of Review, four of the remaining number either dropped their graduate programs, reduced the level of their graduate instruction, or dropped proposed plans for undertaking such programs. The remaining twenty-eight institutions are still under consideration. In some instances they fall below the minimum criteria already described in only one area. Most of these institutions will be asked to submit further data before the Board takes any final action. A number of institutions, however, fall so far below the minimum prescribed percentiles on several criteria, that the Board will inevitably have to request surveys in order to satisfy itself concerning their competence to offer graduate instruction, unless these institutions voluntarily reduce the level of their programs.

I hope it is clear from the foregoing facts, especially to those who from time to time have expressed the opinion that the Commission on Higher Institutions has ignored the present tendency on the part of member institutions to expand their programs to include graduate instruction, that the Board of Review and the Commission have given serious attention to this complex and difficult problem. I believe that the criteria now employed constitute a fairly satisfactory working basis for estimating the competence of institutions to offer graduate instruction leading to the Master's or the Doctor's degrees. These criteria are,

of course, quantitative in nature and are merely indices or symptoms of elements of strength and weakness. They do not reveal the many unmeasurable factors that may contribute to an institution's excellence. For the purpose of identifying such factors, it is necessary to depend upon a survey.

Although we have made reasonable progress in the area of evaluating graduate instruction, we have in no sense arrived at a final solution of the problem. Studies will have to be made to establish further the validity of our criteria, or to revise them in the light of new information that may be gathered. Such studies should be made in cooperation with the other Commissions of this Association and with other accrediting agencies that have an interest in the same problem. As we pursue the issue further, we may agree with Dr. George A. Works, that "Responsibility for accrediting of all work at the Master's degree level or below should be handled by the regional accrediting agencies unless it consists of a professional program beginning after the Bachelor's degree, or it is a highly specialized professional program at the undergraduate level.

"The Association of American Universities should take the responsibility for the accrediting of all graduate work above the level of the Master's degree, if such work is to be accredited."<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> George A. Works, "Accrediting of Institutions of Higher Learning," *Cooperation in Accrediting Procedures*. American Council on Education Studies, Series 1, Vol. V, Number 14, April, 1941. Pp. 16.



## SOME IMPLICATIONS OF THE EIGHT-YEAR STUDY FOR ALL HIGH SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES<sup>1</sup>

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THE Commission on the Relation of School and College was established by the Progressive Education Association in 1930 when the people of the United States were beginning to look upon their political, economic, and social institutions with critical eyes. They were insisting that each institution justify its place in the nation's life. Education did not escape this challenge. The Commission was born out of a conviction that secondary education in the United States could not justify the high place it held without rendering greater service to all the nation's youth. Now, twelve years later, when the democratic concept of human society is being assailed by terrible forces of world destruction, the Commission reports its efforts to unite our institutions of secondary and higher education in renewed devotion to the welfare of American youth.

The Report, *Adventure in American Education*, is being published in five volumes. Volumes I and II are already available. Volume III will be published before the end of the school year and Volumes IV and V, early in the fall of 1942. The title and sub-title of each volume follow: Volume I, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*, with conclusions and recommendations; Volume II, *Exploring the Curriculum*, the work of the Thirty Schools from the viewpoint of Curriculum Consultants; Volume III, *Appraising and Recording Student Progress*, evaluation, records and reports in the Thirty Schools;

<sup>1</sup> Read before the Commission on Secondary Schools at Chicago, March 26, 1942.

Volume IV, *Did They Succeed in College?*, the follow-up study of the graduates of the Thirty Schools; and Volume V, *Thirty Schools Tell Their Story*, in which each school writes of its participation in the Eight-Year Study.

Briefly, the Eight-year Study was based upon a plan of cooperation between schools and colleges of the country. The plan provided that a small number of representative secondary schools, to be selected by the Directing Committee of the Commission, would be released from the usual subject and unit requirements for college admission for a period of eight years, beginning with the class entering college in 1936. Practically all accredited colleges and universities agreed to the plan. Thirty schools or school systems were chosen to cooperate in the Study. These schools are:<sup>1</sup>

Altoona Senior High School, Altoona, Pennsylvania  
Baldwin School, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania  
Beaver Country Day School, Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts  
Bronxville High School, Bronxville, New York  
Cheltenham Township High School, Elkins Park, Pennsylvania  
Dalton Schools, New York, New York  
Denver Senior and Junior High Schools, Denver, Colorado  
Des Moines Senior and Junior High Schools, Des Moines, Iowa  
Eagle Rock High School, Los Angeles, California  
Fieldston School, New York, New York  
Francis W. Parker School, Chicago, Illinois

<sup>1</sup> In 1936, one school withdrew with the consent and approval of the Directing Committee; hence, the final list includes twenty-nine participating schools.

Friends' Central School, Overbrook, Pennsylvania  
 George School, George School, Pennsylvania  
 Germantown Friends School, Germantown, Pennsylvania  
 Horace Mann School, New York, New York  
 John Burroughs School, Clayton, Missouri  
 Lincoln School of Teachers College, New York, New York  
 Milton Academy, Milton, Massachusetts  
 New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois  
 North Shore Country Day School, Winnetka, Illinois  
 Radnor High School, Wayne, Pennsylvania  
 Shaker High School, Shaker Heights, Ohio  
 Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware  
 Tulsa Senior and Junior High Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma  
 University of Chicago High School, Chicago, Illinois  
 University High School, Oakland, California  
 University School of Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio  
 Winsor School, Boston, Massachusetts  
 Wisconsin High School, Madison, Wisconsin

It is obviously impossible to present here an adequate report of the work that has been done since the Commission was established twelve years ago. It is possible, however, to give a brief summary of some aspects of the Study, with major findings and their implications for the schools and colleges of the country.

First, the participating schools had worked as they had never worked before. Theirs was no easy task. Increased freedom brought greatly increased responsibility. Of necessity they asked themselves, "What should we do for our students now that we are free from outside control? What needs are common to all of our students? What individual needs do they have?" To answer these questions the schools had to know each pupil better than ever before. They also had to give more thought to counsel and guidance. The experience has been for the schools a severe eight-year struggle. They have found satisfactory answers to some of

their questions and solutions to some of their problems. In reporting what they have done, the schools are not cocky or complacent, but they hope that the account of their struggles will be helpful to other schools facing similar problems.

Second, the Thirty Schools testify that these eight years have been the most important in their history because of the growth that has come to them from their serious efforts to help their students more effectively. Steadily they sought solid foundation for curriculum reconstruction. Gradually they found bed-rock foundation in the concerns of youth in American society. More and more their study of the American way of life gave sure sense of direction, so that it can now be said that every one of the Thirty Schools has this central purpose: to lead all their students into the fullest possible appreciation and understanding of their American heritage and to give them abundant experience in democratic living in school so that they will play their part in preserving, fostering, and carrying forward the kind of life in which we as a people believe. All other objectives are secondary and related to this central purpose of our schools.

Third, out of their efforts to attain their goals, five types of curriculum changes may be noted:

1. The content and organization of traditional subjects have been markedly changed to bring them much closer to the concerns of students. Content of doubtful value has been supplanted by new content of greater significance in traditional subjects, such as foreign language, mathematics, English, history, and science.

2. Artificial barriers separating teacher from teacher and subject from subject have given place to broad fields of study. This had already been done in most schools in social studies; it has been carried farther in that field and has been extended to mathematics, science, foreign languages, and the arts.

3. In some schools this process has permit-



ted integration, not only of traditional subjects but of broad fields as well. The study of an ancient and modern culture has cut across broad fields and drawn upon all subjects in the curriculum and all teachers on the staff for their contribution.

4. In a few schools the student's probable vocation has become the integrating center for the organization of his curriculum. This often includes actual work experience in his intended vocation, with all of his school work contributing to his understanding of it and preparation for it.

5. The most marked departure from conventional curriculum organization and content has come to be called the core curriculum. The units which comprise the core deal with the common concerns of American youth, such as *Living In a Home, Earning a Living, Understanding Oneself, Working with Others, and Finding Meaning In Life*. Usually two periods each day are devoted to the study of the units which constitute the core, with the rest of the day's program determined on the basis of each student's needs. Continuity of experience and guidance are achieved by keeping the group of students together with the core teacher throughout three or more years. Any subject matter which is pertinent to the units of the core is used, and the services of any teacher who can help are enlisted.

Fourth, it has long been assumed that preparation for the work of the liberal arts college requires study of certain subjects for certain periods of time in high school. Acting upon this assumption, the colleges have prescribed subjects, units, and entrance examinations. The Thirty Schools were freed from these prescriptions. Beginning in 1936, hundreds of students from the Thirty Schools entered college having had secondary school courses markedly different from the conventional college preparatory curriculum. The Commission and the schools wanted to know whether these departures from the traditional college preparation handicapped students in college.

Five college officers who had no commitments to the Commission or the schools conducted a follow-up study in about 38 colleges to appraise the suc-

cess of the students from the Thirty Schools. Each Thirty-School graduate was matched with another student in the same college who had followed the conventional preparatory curriculum and had met the usual requirements for admission. Each pair of students had the same scholastic aptitude score, were of the same age, sex, and race, and came from similar homes and communities.

On the basis of the 1,475 matched pairs of students studied, the College Follow-up Staff reports that the graduates of the Thirty Schools:

1. Earned a slightly higher total grade average
2. Earned higher grade averages in all subject fields except foreign language
3. Specialized in the same academic fields as did the comparison students
4. Did not differ from the comparison group in the number of times they were placed on probation
5. Received slightly more academic honors in each year
6. Were more often judged to possess a high degree of intellectual curiosity and drive
7. Were more often judged to be precise, systematic, and objective in their thinking
8. Were more often judged to have developed clear or well-formulated ideas concerning the meaning of education—especially in the first two years of college
9. More often demonstrated a high degree of resourcefulness in meeting new situations
10. Did not differ from the comparison group in ability to plan their time effectively
11. Had about the same problems of adjustment as the comparison group, but approached their solution with greater effectiveness
12. Participated somewhat more frequently, and more often enjoyed appreciative experiences, in the arts
13. Participated more in all organized student groups except religious and 'service' activities
14. Earned in each college year a higher percentage of non-academic honors (officership in organizations, election to managerial societies, athletic insignia, leading roles in dramatic and musical presentations)
15. Did not differ from comparison group in the quality of adjustment to their contemporaries

16. Differed only slightly from the comparison group in the kinds of judgments about their schooling
17. Had a somewhat better orientation toward the choice of a vocation
18. Demonstrated a more active concern for what was going on in the world

"It is quite obvious from this data," the Follow-up Staff concludes, "that the Thirty Schools graduates, as a group, have done a somewhat better job than the comparison group whether success is judged by college standards, by the students' contemporaries, or by the individual students."

When these results began to emerge, the Directing Committee and school heads asked whether this creditable showing might be due to the graduates of those of the Thirty Schools which had not departed greatly from traditional patterns and ways of college preparation. To answer this question the College Staff analyzed the records of the graduates of the six participating schools in which least change had taken place and the records of the graduates of the six schools in which the most marked departures from conventional college preparatory courses had been made. Each of these groups was studied in relation to its respective comparison group.

The investigation revealed that

The graduates of the most experimental schools were strikingly more successful than their matchees. Differences in their favor were much greater than the differences between the total Thirty Schools and their comparison group. Conversely, there were no large or consistent differences between the least experimental graduates and their comparison group. For these students the differences were smaller and less consistent than for the total Thirty Schools and their comparison group.

The College Follow-up Staff comments on these facts as follows:

If the proof of the pudding lies in these groups, and a good part of it does, then it follows that the colleges got from these most experimental schools a higher proportion of

sound, effective college material than they did from the more conventional schools in similar environments. If colleges want students of sound scholarship with vital interests, students who have developed effective and objective habits of thinking, and who yet maintain a healthy orientation toward their fellows, then they will encourage the already obvious trend away from restrictions which tend to inhibit departures or deviations from the conventional curriculum patterns.

The high school and the liberal arts college in the United States exist for the same purpose—general or "liberal" education for responsible citizenship. In both institutions this major purpose has been obscured or forgotten in the multiplicity of lesser tasks. Because each has been so busy with its own confusion of activities, effective coordination of purpose and practice has been neglected.

Seventy per cent of the nation's youth of secondary school age—ten million boys and girls from twelve to eighteen—are in school. Many of their most urgent needs are not being met by the schools. Of six who enter the seventh grade or junior high school five end their schooling at or before graduation from high school. Only one of the six goes on to college, yet "college preparation" is still the dominant influence in defining the content and organization of the high school curriculum. Until the college preparatory function takes its proper place in the secondary school, there can be little hope that the school will render its full service to the five who enter directly into the life and work of the community.

The Commission's chief concern from the beginning has been better service by the high school to *all* youth, to the one who goes to college and to the five who do not. This could not be done without the cooperation of the colleges. That cooperation was sought and secured in the Eight-Year Study. The



findings of the Study have great significance and far-reaching implications for all schools and colleges throughout the country.

1. We have found that success in the liberal arts college does not depend upon the study in high school of certain subjects for certain periods of time. It is now established beyond question that there is no justification for prescription of a certain pattern of subjects and credits by the colleges as the basis of admission.

2. Colleges should now abandon subject and unity prescription and entrance examinations based upon specific subjects matter. Our Study has proved that there are many different kinds of secondary school experience through which students develop the qualities of mind and character essential to success in college work.

3. For the present, colleges should adopt a plan of admission which does not prescribe a pattern of subjects and credits or specific content for high school students. The Eight-Year Study has demonstrated beyond question that colleges can secure all the information they need for selection of candidates for admission without restricting the secondary school by prescribing the curriculum. For this purpose, evidence from such sources as the following would provide ample data:

a. Descriptions of students, indicating qualities of character, habits of work, personality, and social adjustment. Many of the record forms prepared by the Commission's Committee on Records and Reports are helpful in this connection.

b. The results of the use of instruments of evaluation: (1) such standardized tests as are applicable to the school's work; (2) other types of tests appropriate to the objectives of the school, such as those prepared by the Evaluation Staff of this Study; and (3) scholastic aptitude tests that measure characteristics essential to college work and are independent of particular patterns of school preparation.

c. For colleges that require tests given by an outside agency, records of achievement in examinations that do not presuppose a particular pattern of content. An example is the Comprehensive English examination of the College Examination Board. (An admission plan such as this would not fix the content or organization of the high school curriculum.)

4. In looking to the future for more satisfactory school and college relations, our hope lies in the application of the democratic principle of full participation to the solution of

this difficult problem. Admission requirements should not be imposed upon the schools by the colleges; neither should the schools attempt to tell the colleges what to do. Together they should determine their common purposes and together they should evolve a way of facilitating the student's progress from school to college. Any permanently satisfying plan of admission to college should be the product of cooperative investigation and study in which schools and colleges share equally.

5. The Thirty Schools have demonstrated that secondary schools generally can be trusted with freedom from imposed requirements by the colleges. These are representative schools. They did not abuse their freedom; they did not engage in wild, irresponsible experimentation. In fact, their greater freedom brought with it a greater sense of responsibility. It led to profound study of the school's obligation to society and to each individual student. There is no reason to suppose that other schools would not accept their greater responsibility with equal seriousness and competence. As hundreds of teachers in the participating schools discovered in themselves unknown creative powers, so would thousands of others develop new vitality and strength in their attempts to perform new duties. Surely the freedom which produces such results will not long be denied.

We may confidently expect that schools and colleges throughout the country will develop relations which will make possible for all schools a considerable measure of the freedom which the Thirty Schools have had. Steps to that end are being taken by the Progressive Education Association, by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and by other influential organizations. Many colleges are ready now; others are open-minded, willing to be persuaded and convinced. Some will resist every liberalizing influence. Full cooperation will come in time, for a democratic society can no longer permit the waste of material and human resources that now takes place because of our failure to unite the strength of schools and colleges for the greatest possible service to American youth.

But let us make no mistake at this

point. Freedom does not of itself bring progress. High schools generally now have more latitude for constructive effort than they use. Greater freedom will bring greater responsibility. By taking advantage of the opportunities that they now have to serve youth better, schools will demonstrate that a larger measure of freedom should be granted.

This takes us then to the heart of the matter. The democratic ideal of life and society demands a dynamic high school whose purposes and practices are consistent with that ideal. This we have not yet fully achieved, either among the Thirty Schools or elsewhere. Its achievement requires fundamental reconstruction of secondary education.

The Thirty Schools have been engaged in this task. Other schools have been struggling with the same problem. Every school should join in this attempt. I now bring you some lessons which the schools of the Eight-Year Study have learned. Perhaps they will enable other schools to avoid mistakes and to find more quickly a sure sense of direction.

1. Principals and teachers must be willing and able to reconsider and call in question everything they have been taking for granted. All of the present work of the school—its purposes, its practices, its organization, its curriculum—should be subjected to the most careful scrutiny. Vested interests should be laid aside, custom called in question, and tradition held up to the clear light of the present needs of youth in our society.

2. Change should not be made hastily or piecemeal. Fundamental revision requires the most serious study of which teachers and administrators are capable. The democratic ideal of life cuts deep. To understand it clearly and fully, educators must bring all their powers of intellect and imagination to its study.

The problems and concerns of youth are many and real. Earnest, careful, open-minded investigation is essential if a school faculty is to know what those concerns are and what should be done to meet them. The schools of the Study which plunged into change without sufficient deliberation found it necessary later to abandon some of their new work and to dig deeper for solid rock on which to build.

3. Deliberation preparatory to reconstruction in any school should involve every teacher. No one should be left out. Even the teacher who opposes all change should have his say. Failure to include everyone resulted in some of the most serious difficulties encountered by the participating schools. Being left out of the discussions, many teachers felt hurt and were indifferent to the new work. Others were resentful, and some were so unprofessional as to obstruct and ridicule the efforts of those who were involved in the work of revision. Moreover, many teachers have unsuspected powers of creative thought and action. Many of the schools failed to draw upon these powers, to their distinct loss. Unanimity of thought and action is seldom achieved, but progress can be made without that if opportunity for full participation is provided.

4. Participation by parents is essential.

Few of the Thirty Schools realized fully in the beginning that changes in the school cannot be satisfactorily made without both participation and understanding by parents.

Most parents of the present high school generation went to high school for a least a year. They think of it as they know it when they were students. Anything different from their own school experience tends to disturb them. When their sons and daughters tell of "integrated subjects," "core courses," "culture epochs," excursions for community study, teacher-pupil planning, and the like, parents wonder what in the world is going on at school. They are inclined to have confidence



in the teachers, but these strange things cause doubts to arise. Most parents want schools to be alive and to make progress, but they want to be sure that established curriculums and ways of teaching are not changed without good reason and that the new ways are sensible and sound. Of course, every school has a few patrons who object violently and noisily to any change from "the good old days of the little red school-house on the hill."

If principal, teachers, and students have one concept of education and parents quite another, misunderstanding, conflict, and unhappiness are inevitable. . . . The schools which did not draw patrons into the planning which preceded revision encountered parental misunderstanding. Unwarranted criticism and opposition were the results. This could have been avoided if these schools had taken pains to secure parental participation in the thinking which led to change in the curriculum. Moreover, these schools did not have the good counsel that many thoughtful laymen can give. Others of the member schools took parents into their confidence, consulted with them as plans were developed, and gained the strength of their support in new undertakings. Out of these happy and unhappy experiences the Thirty Schools have learned that no school is fully prepared for reconstruction unless the cooperation of parents has been secured.<sup>1</sup>

5. Students, too, have important contributions to make to curriculum building. Seldom have teachers realized the capacity of young people to think constructively about their own education. Many teachers in the Thirty Schools have been surprised and delighted by the response of students when invited to think about what the school should be and do.

6. No school or teacher is fully ready for constructive change until plans for appraising results are carefully formulated.

The school should find out whether changes in curriculum and methods of teaching achieve

purposes more effectively. The Thirty Schools emphasize the necessity of taking time to secure all possible evidence of student progress and to study that evidence searchingly for clues to further action. Equally important are adequate means for recording and reporting all significant aspects of pupil development. Evaluating, recording, and reporting are inextricably interwoven in the whole fabric of education. Therefore, they cannot be ignored in any sound preparation for educational reconstruction.<sup>1</sup>

7. Let me now tell you that this Study reveals clearly that the school which undertakes thorough-going re-making of itself is in for the most difficult and, at the same time, the most thrilling and profitable experience in its history. When teachers cooperatively seek to help young people with their perplexing problems of growing up into a complex adult world, they give themselves without stint and to the point of exhaustion. Teaching ceases to be deadening routine and becomes the most exciting and challenging work in the world. In the Thirty Schools hundreds of teachers have discovered new and rich life for themselves as teachers and as persons. And they testify that all the cost of time and effort is repaid many fold in deep satisfaction and personal growth.

The ten million boys and girls now in our high schools cannot carry the nation's burden in this hour of world conflict. That burden is ours. We are determined that the earth they inherit shall not be in chains. Theirs will be the task that only free men can perform in a world of freedom. It will be an even greater task than ours. To prepare them for it is the supreme opportunity of the schools of our democracy.

<sup>1</sup> Wilford M. Aikin, *The Story of the Eight-Year Study*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1942.

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*

## A SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS OF THE SUBCOMMITTEE ON IN-SERVICE EDUCATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS <sup>1</sup>

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IN THE July issue of THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY the basic assumptions for evaluation of techniques employed in secondary schools for educating teachers in service were discussed. In the October issue a list of the most promising techniques and those of doubtful value was presented. In this paper the writer will discuss some of the general findings of the subcommittee in relation to the problem of educating teachers in service.

A study of previous research concerning the problems of educating teachers in service revealed that teachers and administrators seemed to agree that educating teachers in service is a definite responsibility of the secondary school and that this responsibility could not be met by merely encouraging teachers to attend summer schools or extension classes. Examination of previous inquiries led the Sub-committee to conclude that other investigators had found that insufficient planning, use of outworn, disliked, principal-centered techniques, and the absence of cooperative attacks on the common problems of the staff were the chief reasons for failure of programs of in-service education. The findings of those who have previously inquired into the problem of educating teachers in service warrant the assertion that the following procedures have the greatest promise for encouraging growth of teachers in service:

1. Discarding inspectorial techniques which originate with administrators
2. Giving teachers a definite part in shaping school policies, planning the school budget, developing the curriculum, selecting materials for instruction, planning faculty meetings, and developing a program of public relations
3. Devising ways and means for teachers to have a part in the selection of their own leaders who will preside over their own meetings
4. Inviting and encouraging parents and pupils to participate in deliberations which concern problems affecting the child
5. Encouraging the work-shop idea in the education of teachers

Each school was requested to express briefly but clearly the philosophy of in-service education which gave direction to its in-service education program. One hundred eighteen schools, or 47.7 percent, failed to express any philosophy of in-service education. Seventy schools, or 28.4 percent, expressed a philosophy of in-service education which indicated belief in a cooperative approach to the problem. Fifty-seven schools, or 23.9 percent, expressed a philosophy which was opportunistic or dictatorial.

The fact that 47.7 percent of the schools failed to express their philosophies of in-service education seems to indicate that nearly one-half of the schools studied have not given serious attention to the role of the secondary school as an agency for educating teachers. To be without a philosophy of in-service education is tantamount to action of an impulsive or accidental nature based neither upon ends which seem to be valuable nor upon procedures which have promise. Apparently, a large

<sup>1</sup> An abstract of a report submitted to the subcommittee on In-Service Training of Teachers. Mr. Weber is research assistant to the subcommittee.



number of secondary schools play such an opportunistic role which results in work-while procedures only by chance.

About one-half of the schools which reported philosophies of in-service education expressed their ideas in traditional, individualistic terms. Probably these schools have relied on tradition rather than on thinking through the problem of educating teachers while in service in the secondary school.

One-fourth of all the schools clearly expressed their belief that cooperative planning and cooperative action are needed if teachers are to grow in service. However, the following quotations illustrate conflicting points of view expressed by two school men on the question:

We are gradually beginning to recognize the school as an agent of the community which serves the needs of the community. We realize more and more that the school, itself, is a miniature community in which people must live together in such a way that each shares in group responsibility. The older conception of the teacher as the autocratic leader in a classroom and of the principal as the autocratic leader of teachers is giving way to cooperative planning and working together for common ends. We believe that teachers must develop in all aspects of living if they are to be better associates for youth.

My philosophy briefly is: Employ qualified teachers who have good personalities, who are interested in teaching as a profession, interested in success, and interested in graduate training. Give them good physical equipment and enough supervision, but do not tie them to techniques and theoretical planning to the point where they become so worried and involved with in-service growth that they do not have time to teach. In other words, be practical.

Holding general staff meetings is considered one of the chief means for educating teachers in service by the schools included in the sample. Ninety-seven percent of the schools studied reported that general staff meetings were held for the purpose of promoting teacher growth. Two-thirds of the schools indicated that meetings were held at regular

intervals, and eight out of every ten said that such meetings were held after school. The modal staff meeting is sixty minutes in length and occurs once about every three weeks. In nearly 90 percent of the schools teachers are required to attend and in 85 percent no effort is ever made to invite or encourage parents or pupils or board members to attend faculty meetings.

Administrators always preside at faculty meetings in 82.5 percent of the cases, whereas teachers always preside in only 3.2 percent of the schools. In 14.3 percent of the cases teachers preside occasionally or part of the time. Accurate minutes are kept of faculty deliberations in only one school out of four, and in only one case out of ten are the minutes made available in duplicate for examination by the staff.

In two-thirds of the schools the principal or superintendent plans all the faculty meetings, whereas teachers elected by the staff plan meetings in only 18.2 percent of the cases. In 15.8 percent of the schools the principal appoints committees to plan faculty meetings, assigns the job to department heads, or makes no plans whatever.

It is interesting to note that when the schools were asked to state the most promising technique in their schools in connection with employing faculty meetings to promote teacher growth, the following were the most frequently mentioned: (1) having teachers plan faculty meetings, and (2) having teachers work with the principal to plan faculty meetings.

In connection with faculty meetings the most serious obstacles listed were: (1) lack of interest on the part of teachers (29 percent), (2) inability to find suitable time of day (27 percent), (3) heavy teaching and extra-curricular load (18 percent), and (4) lack of planning (13.1 percent).

The relationship between the number of cooperative techniques reported by the schools and frequency of mention of the four obstacles listed above was computed. The coefficient of correlation was found to be  $-.26$ . The correlation for the number of principal-centered, non-cooperative techniques used and the four obstacles in question was  $+.42$ . Apparently, the use of cooperative techniques is more effective in removing such obstacles than the non-cooperative, individualistic procedures.

The five most frequent methods of conducting faculty meetings were as follows: (1) talks by the principal, (2) general discussion by the staff, (3) open discussion following talks, (4) discussion of committee reports, and (5) committee reports.

Teachers were asked to evaluate the methods of conducting faculty meetings which had been employed in their schools. The five most valued procedures were: (1) holding parent-teacher forums, (2) open discussion following talks, (3) general discussion by the staff without speakers, (4) panel discussions, and (5) committee reports.

A detailed study was made of the topics discussed in faculty meetings of all kinds and Table I is a summary of the findings. The attention of the reader is called to the fact that such topics as *How Children Learn*, *Experiments in Education*, *Educational Magazine Articles*, and *Educational Research* are at the bottom of the list. How can schools intelligently attack problems of guidance, curriculum development, or evaluation of present practices when they almost ignore the learning process, experimentation in education, current literature in the field, and educational research?

A coefficient of correlation of  $+.82$  between the frequency of discussion of five topics, namely, *How Children*

*Learn*, *Experiments in Education*, *Educational Research*, *Educational Magazine Articles*, and *Social and Economic Problems* and the frequency of use of cooperative techniques for planning general faculty meetings was found. When the frequency of discussion of these five topics was studied in relation to the use of principal-centered, individualistic, non-cooperative techniques, a coefficient of correlation of  $-.23$  was discovered. It seems that, if study of the five topics mentioned above is important for teachers, the cooperative techniques are more valuable in promoting it than are the more common principal-dominated procedures.

TABLE I  
TOPICS MOST FREQUENTLY DISCUSSED IN  
FACULTY MEETINGS OF ALL TYPES

Topic	Average Frequency of Discussion <sup>1</sup>	Rank
Pupil problems and needs.	2.8	1
Guidance.....	2.6	2
Curriculum development..	2.4	3
Evaluation of present practices.....	2.3	4
Administrative policy.....	2.2	5-5
Grades and marks.....	2.2	5-5
Democratic school practices.	2.1	7
Teacher problems and needs	2.0	8
Educational philosophy...	1.9	9
Methods of teaching.....	1.8	10
Social and economic problems.....	1.7	11
How children learn.....	1.6	12
Experiments in education.	1.5	13
Educational magazine articles.....	1.2	14
Educational research.....	1.1	15
Teacher tenure.....	1.0	16

<sup>1</sup> Key: 0, never discussed; 1, seldom discussed; 2, discussed occasionally; 3, discussed often; 4, discussed very frequently.

Ninety-four percent of the selected schools reported committee activity on the part of the staff had been found to be a very useful and valuable means of educating teachers in service. Commit-



tees fell into ten major groups, listed in order of frequency of use, namely, committees on guidance, curriculum development, planning, extra-curricular activities, teacher welfare, grades and marks, instructional aids, administration, and public relations. Two-thirds of the committees were appointed by the principal, while fewer than one-third were selected by the staff itself.

Very few schools reported that pupils or parents ever served on committees. In 13.6 percent of the schools students sometimes worked with teachers in attacking problems of the school and in only 4.5 percent of the schools were parents included on such committees.

The specific functions of committees fell into five major categories: suggesting topics for staff study, gathering facts and information, devising plans of action, experimenting, and evaluating present practices. The extent to which these activities were reported is shown in Table II.

TABLE II

THE SPECIFIC FUNCTIONS OF COMMITTEES  
IN THE SELECTED SCHOOLS

<i>Function</i>	<i>Percent of Committees</i>
To gather facts and information....	50.7
To devise plans of action.....	30.2
To suggest topics for staff study....	12.6
To evaluate present practices.....	4.9
To conduct experiments.....	1.6

Fifty-four percent of the committee reports found their way into the hands of teachers and were then used as teachers chose to use them. Only 21 percent of the committee reports were actually used as a basis for staff action. Thirteen percent of the reports were filed and forgotten; 6 percent were turned over to the administrator; and 5 percent found their way to parents, pupils, and teachers.

The schools reported that when teachers selected their own committees and when committee reports were actually

used as bases for plans of action by the staff as a group, and when parents and pupils, as well as teachers, served on committees, committee activity was most valuable as a technique for educating teachers in service. In spite of this reaction, most of the committee work reported was the result of the principal's planning and appointment and not much of the committee work resulted in real action on the part of the staff. Wherever there were a number of cooperative techniques reported in connection with planning of faculty meetings, there was also a considerable amount of committee activity involving teacher selection of members.

The data indicate that there is little relation between size of school and bases of salary increases as an inducement to teacher growth. The chief criterion for granting salary increases was found to be attendance at summer school and, therefore, earning an advanced degree. Consequently it is surprising to find that 64 percent of the schools reported that in their opinion mere attendance at summer sessions and earning an advanced degree was no guarantee of teacher growth. In fact, the majority of the schools reported that the chief obstacle encountered in connection with giving salary increments to encourage growth was the fact that it promoted summer school attendance and earning advanced degrees and, at the same time, caused teachers to get "degreeitis," to seek other positions or salary increases, rather than to seek growth as teachers of children.

In general, the situation with respect to salary increments reflects an individualistic rather than a cooperative point of view. Teachers are encouraged to attend summer school almost entirely for their own benefit without reference to their responsibilities to the staff of which they are members and without

reference to problems which have arisen out of staff study in their respective schools. Secondary schools, in general, have not made intelligent, cooperative efforts to organize neither the summer study of teachers nor the salary schedule so that intelligent planning of summer study on a cooperative basis would be encouraged. Most of the summer study, therefore, is divorced from the real problems of the staff and, as a result, the emphasis has been upon the symbols of growth rather than upon growth in terms of the ability to attack real, live, specific problems within the secondary school. Not until teachers assist in planning and arranging salary schedules whose increments come as a reward for cooperative attacks upon the problem of the school in summer study will such study in college or university yield the desired benefits.

Granting leaves of absence with pay for any purpose is an infrequent practice for schools of all sizes and types. Granting leaves without pay is a more frequent practice, but even this is rare. Those schools which have granted leaves of absence with pay for study feel that it is a very valuable technique for educating teachers in service. Those schools which granted leaves without pay doubted the value of such a practice. In no school was there any evidence of cooperative planning in granting leaves of absence with or without pay.

Three-fourths of the schools reported some kind of a program for granting sick leave. It is important to note that one out of every four had none. Only one-third of the schools have any kind of cumulative sick leave, even though health authorities, as well as mental hygienists, agree that cumulative sick leave is essential to teacher health. But the data indicate that teachers have had little to say in regard to sick leave. In general, boards of education have de-

termined such policies upon recommendation of the administrators. Throughout the whole mass of data regarding leave of absence, there were expressions of dissatisfaction with programs in operation and little evidence of any cooperative planning. The lack of such planning is probably the root of the difficulty.

Exchanging teachers with other schools is a very infrequent practice in the 247 schools studied. Two-thirds of the schools which reported such exchanges felt that they were valuable. Again the chief reason for failure of such a technique to stimulate growth was that exchanges were made without any form of cooperative planning on the part of the staff.

Very little was reported in the areas of health examinations, group insurance, recreation, improved living conditions, or the orientation of new teachers in a school.

By and large, teachers have no voice in the selection of their co-workers. Apparently, they are left out when it comes to selection of those with whom they are to work.

When presented with a list of fifty-four specific techniques which had been used in other schools for educating teachers in service, the schools reported that practice was highly individualistic and principal-dominated but that they valued the cooperative techniques which were characterized by teacher participation and teacher initiative most highly. Tradition and habit have such a tremendous grip upon teachers and administrators as to stereotype practice even though cooperative techniques are valued most highly.

However, when a list of forty-nine techniques in the area of curriculum development was presented to the schools, different results were secured. In this area there was a much higher



correlation between frequency of use and evaluation of techniques. Curriculum development, itself, is an attempt to cast off traditional practices. It is an organized attempt to introduce new procedures. Hence, the techniques involved in such activity would be less likely to follow the pattern of older devices for the education of teachers in service.

When the selected schools were requested to list in anecdotal form the techniques of greatest promise for educating teachers in service as judged by results in their respective schools, the following were most frequently mentioned:

1. Having teachers organize themselves into committees to study problems.
2. Having teachers, rather than the principal or department heads, plan faculty meetings.
3. Providing an adequate professional library in a room used exclusively by teachers and fitted as a comfortable, home-like, browsing room.
4. Having teacher-panels discuss recent articles in periodical literature.
5. Giving special financial awards for participation in cooperative attacks upon school problems.
6. Engaging in evaluation of the school by use of such devices as the application of the criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.
7. Organizing a well planned, cooperative attack on problems of curriculum development.
8. Holding forums where teachers, pupils, parents, and board members could discuss their common problems.
9. Attending summer schools, more particularly summer work-shops.
10. Visiting other teachers.

None of the above techniques was mentioned by fewer than twenty-four schools. Seventeen stated that having the principal issue bulletins was helpful, while only five reported that visitation of classes by the principal promoted growth in service.

Examination of the obstacles encountered, as reported in anecdotal form, is enlightening. One hundred

twelve schools, or 45.5 percent, reported that lack of time was the chief obstacle to be overcome in setting up a program for educating teachers in service. Ninety-nine schools, or 40.3 percent, stated that unprofessional attitudes on the part of teachers was the chief obstacle. In connection with this latter statement, however, it was discovered from the data that wherever cooperative techniques were widely used this obstacle was not mentioned.

Lack of money for books and periodicals, and otherwise inadequate library situations for teachers were ranked as third in importance. Thirty-four schools, 13.8 percent, mentioned this obstacle.

Lack of planning was listed as the chief obstacle by twenty-one schools, representing 8.4 percent of the total, and conflicts in personality was ranked as important by fourteen.

A number of studies were made of the relationship between the use of cooperative techniques or individualistic, principal-dominated techniques and frequency of mention of certain practices or situations. Table III summarizes the major findings.

These data appear to indicate that value, but they are also most frequently seem to be the better procedure to remove the "poor professional attitude of teachers;" to increase the attention paid to research, to educational literature, and to the study of the learning process; to increase the attention paid to study of the local community; to encourage experimentation; and to promote activity in the area of curriculum development.

#### SUMMARY

In-service education of teachers in the secondary schools of the North Central Association, as judged by the reports from the selected sample, is in a confused, perplexing, but promising state of flux. The modal practice in the second-

ary schools is traditional, supervisory, inspectorial, and individualistic; but administrators, teachers, supervisors, and department heads agree that the modal practices do not represent the most promising practices. Results confirm their judgment.

Techniques which are supervisory and inspectorial originating with administra-

ity, in the program of curriculum development, in the program of selection and orientation of new staff members, in the use of salary increments to encourage growth, in practices concerning leaves of absence, and in the selection of specific techniques, the administrator and his supervisors play the dominant roles even though these individuals agree

TABLE III  
COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN COOPERATIVE OR NON-COOPERATIVE TECHNIQUES AND THE FREQUENCY OF USE OF CERTAIN PRACTICES

Item	Correlation with Cooperative Techniques	Correlation with Traditional Techniques
Number of times poor professional attitude was listed as obstacle.....	-.26	+.42
Frequency of study of Research, Experimentation, Periodical Literature, Social and Economic Problems, and How Children Learn.....	+.82	-.23
Frequency of study of How Children Learn and Educational Literature.....	+.58	-.24
Frequency of study of child's community.....	+.64	+.02
Experimentation with the school.....	+.53	-.34
Techniques reported in the area of curriculum development..	+.71	-.64

ors and supervisors and which are individualistic rather than cooperative in character are considered of doubtful value, but they are also most frequently used. Techniques which involve teacher participation in planning and policy making, which involve teacher participation in all phases of the program of in-service education, and which encourage teacher initiation of action as well as planning are considered most valuable, but these techniques are the least used.

In the conduct of faculty meetings, in the organization of committee activ-

that techniques involving democratic cooperation are by far more valuable for promoting teacher growth in service.

The intentions of administrators are good, but habit and tradition apparently limit their action. Habits are so insistent and so determinant that they interfere with inquiry; and the more commonplace they become, the more effectively do they control action. Apparently, the task confronting the educator is to cast aside the fetters of traditional devices and let the teachers share in planning, in policy making, in determining procedure, and in evaluating results.



# GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL <sup>1</sup>

## PRESENTATION OF THE BOOK

B. LAMAR JOHNSON

Stephens College

*Greeting his pupils, the master asked, What would you learn of me? And the reply came:*

*How shall we care for our bodies?*

*How shall we rear our children?*

*How shall we work together?*

*How shall we live with our fellowmen?*

*How shall we play?*

*For what ends shall we live? . . .*

*And the teacher pondered these words, and sorrow was in his heart, for his own learning touched not these things.<sup>2</sup>*

THESE words printed on the flyleaf of Chapman and Counts *Principles of Education* serve not only as a striking introduction to their book but as a challenge to each of us as educators; they also serve as a fitting opening to this program during which we shall discuss the volume, *General Education in the American High School*.

Typically, the high school has prepared pupils for entrance to college; the college has trained the student for the graduate or professional school; and the graduate school has turned out the scholar. In the meantime, 65 per cent of our youth who do not graduate from our high schools<sup>3</sup> and an additional 30 per cent who do not finish college

unite with the 5 per cent who receive their bachelor's degrees<sup>1</sup> in asking, "How shall we care for our bodies? How shall we rear our children? . . . How shall we live with our fellow men? . . . For what ends shall we live? . . ."

It was the discussion of considerations such as these that led your General Education Committee to plan the publication of *General Education in the American High School*.

What is general education? What is its background—social, psychological, and professional? What are the current significant trends in general education? What specific general education programs and practices are suggestive to secondary-school teachers and administrators? How can we interpret and evaluate general education practices? This book aims to throw light on these and related questions which are giving concern to high-school faculties interested in developing and in improving programs of general education.<sup>2</sup>

General education is a term which, during the past decade, has come into a new use by both educators and laymen. In the past, general education has at times been used to refer to the common body of experiences represented by the three R's in the elementary school; at other times, general education has described a required body of curriculum in any given high school. More recently, however, the term has been used to

<sup>1</sup> This and the succeeding five papers were read before the Commission on Curricula of Colleges and Secondary Schools in Chicago, March 25, 1942. All of them are related to the latest publication of the Commission; namely, *General Education in the American High School*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1942. Pp. xvi + 320. \$2.25.

<sup>2</sup> J. Crosby Chapman and George S. Counts, *Principles of Education*, p. ii. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924.

<sup>3</sup> *Youth Education Today*. Sixteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: National Education Association, 1938.

<sup>1</sup> *Abridged Statistics of Higher Education*, 1935-36, p. 7. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1937, No. 2.

*Biennial Survey of Education*, 1932-34, p. 48. U.S. Office of Education Bulletin, 1935, No. 2.

<sup>2</sup> B. Lamar Johnson, "General Education—What Is It and Why?" pp. xiii-xiv. *General Education in the American High School*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Co., 1942.

characterize what Eurich has termed a "ground swelling in American colleges and universities" which recognizes that colleges are obligated to provide instruction planned in terms of the life needs of students and that these life needs include more than academic scholarship and preparation for the professions.<sup>1</sup>

Since you have in your hands a copy of the table of contents, I shall not list the chapters or comment in greater detail on the organization of the book. Rather, I shall discuss briefly two questions as a background for considering this volume. The first is this: What is general education?

Although the term general education was, in its latest sense, first used in referring to programs of higher education, the college has no monopoly on general education. The objectives of general education directly relate to the problems and goals of secondary-school students. Both methods and content appropriate to general education have long been forecast and actually developed in pioneering secondary schools. General education, in fact, is not a new development in the secondary school. Rather, its current prominence reflects the diligent search in recent years for the true purposes of American secondary schooling.

General education is general in at least three respects:

First, general education is intended for everyone—not merely for the select few who become scholars or who enter the professions. No longer will preparation for college entrance dominate the curriculum of the high school which is committed to the objectives of general education. The program of such a school will be planned to meet the varied needs of all the young people of the community which it serves.

Second, general education is concerned with

the total personality—not merely with the intellect but with emotions, habits, attitudes. General education regards the student as a single unified being rather than a compartment of knowledge, one of feelings and another of beliefs. This means that specific general education programs must be defined in terms of what the learner is or does rather than in terms of course content or a body of knowledge.

Third, general education is concerned with the individual's non-specialized activities. It consists of preparation for efficient living, no matter what one's vocation. This does not at all imply a lack of concern for vocational training. Since two of the responsibilities of every person are a contribution to society and the earning of his own living, general education should include the choosing of a vocation in relation both to one's own aptitudes and interests and to the needs of society.<sup>1</sup>

Obviously, this brief characterization is but an introduction to the definition of general education—a definition which is developed throughout the twelve chapters of the volume under discussion.

As a nation we are now being asked to eliminate luxuries and even to curtail the use of some essentials. It is with this in mind that I raise my second question: Is general education a luxury or an essential?

Any education which does not meet the present or future needs of our nation is obviously a luxury and is, therefore, indefensible in these days. Let me repeat data which I mentioned earlier: 65 per cent of our youth do not finish high school; 95 per cent do not graduate from college. If, under these circumstances, there are still any considerable number of high schools whose curriculums are dominated by college preparation rather than by student needs, those high schools have luxury programs which need to be treated as such in times of emergency. On the other hand, in the current crisis, general education is essential.

During the war emergency, citizens

<sup>1</sup> Alvin C. Eurich, "A Renewed Emphasis upon General Education," p. 3 in *General Education in the American College*. Thirty-Eighth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part II. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Company, 1939.

<sup>1</sup> Johnson, *op. cit.*, p. xii.

need to meet not only the added problems of war—production, defense, offense; but they must also meet the increasingly difficult problems of everyday life—the maintenance of physical and mental health in a period of tension, the balancing of family budgets in a period of rising prices, the holding to a perspective of values in a period of turmoil. The extent to which the nation succeeds in meeting these problems is crucial in morale, is crucial in the successful carrying out of a war emergency. To this, general education is essential.

In these days of war there is always before us an awareness that days of peace are to come again. This war must be won—and that is our immediate goal. But, also essential is preparation for the new crises which our nation and the world will meet with the coming of peace—crises which will affect every farm, village, and city in America, crises which will be particularly real in the lives of our youth—the boys and girls who are today in high school.

Youth must be educated for citizen-

ship. We need to help them understand the causes and background of this war; we need to make them aware of the tremendous problems they and we are to face during post-war reconstruction; we need to lead them to realize the importance of democracy here and now. In doing this we shall be training an informed citizenry which will demand of its elected leaders a lasting and not a vindictive peace, an informed citizenry which will press toward worldwide constructive rehabilitation under the leadership of the United States. These needs are not luxuries. They are essentials. The meeting of these needs demands a vital program of general education.

Mr. Chairman, in behalf of the General Education Committee I wish to present this volume to you and to the Commission. It is our hope that this book will contribute to the development of improved programs of general education planned in terms of meeting the needs of youth and the needs of our nation.



## ONE IMPLICATION OF SOCIAL FACT AND THEORY FOR GENERAL EDUCATION

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THE book which has just been presented to the Commission is based on this assumption: A rational and forward looking theory of general education in the secondary school rests on research findings in the social sciences, in human growth and development, on the psychology of learning, and research in the curriculum. To this I would add that I believe a rational theory of general education in the American high school must include a theory of general administration. In my opinion a theory of administration can be derived from the practice and research in church administration, military administration, public administration, business administration, and school administration. If schools are now administered on the basis of a rational theory of administration, it is by accident and not by design; for the theory has not yet been expounded, although happily there are signs that it will shortly be produced.

In my opinion educators have neglected the implications of social fact and theory as it applies to education. As a result many frontier thinkers and researchers in the social sciences distrust professional educators because they feel we have been uninterested in the facts or have ignored their implications.

The educator may seek the key values of the social sciences which apply to education among the findings of the recognized scholars. This heritage may be summarized as follows and can be documented chapter and verse in the funded knowledge of society. This heritage, then, may be called a charter for

general education—a mandate which must be observed—if general education is to fit the social pattern from which it emerges.

1. The belief that human life, happiness, and well-being are to be valued above all else.

2. The assertion that, within the limits imposed by nature, man is master of his own destiny; that within these limits man has the right to control his own destiny, in his own way.

3. The assertion that the people are sovereign and that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed; that consent is thus the major social bond; and that human beings are not the mere instruments of the state.

4. The belief that government *for* the people can be assured only if there is government *by* the people.

5. Faith in the ability of men to govern themselves wisely; and the belief that the distribution of such ability follows no social or economic lines.

6. Faith in human intelligence, and the belief that by taking thought man can build a better world; hence, the belief that human happiness and well-being can best be advanced only if there is an unrestricted play of free intelligence upon all problems and difficulties. Hence,

The guarantees given to freedom of thought, belief, speech, assembly, and press—freedoms which are not to be abrogated or curtailed by any majority; these freedoms are in fact placed above the law.

The determination to maintain these freedoms as the necessary condition for creating new mind, and the realization that whoever denies any of these freedoms to that degree stifles intelligence.

The determination that differences shall be resolved and consent engineered only through persuasion based on reason.

The high valuations placed on integrity and fair play, and the inclusive tolerance of all creeds and all political faiths.

7. The belief that all human beings are intrinsically of equivalent moral worth; hence the determination that

The dignity and worth of each person shall be respected at all times and under all conditions.

The good life, however conceived, shall be made equally available to all persons without favoritism. Equal justice shall be guaranteed to all persons; equal educational opportunity shall be guaranteed to all; the opportunity to engage in gainful employment, under decent working conditions and at a fair wage, shall be assured to all adults; and undeserved poverty shall be abolished.

Tests of the validity of all policies and arrangements shall be made in terms of what each does, or promises to do, for the welfare of human beings; and, furthermore, all such valuations shall be made in terms of all types of individual well-being.

The happiness and well-being of each person shall count equally in all valuations and in the framing of all social policy.

8. The belief that the majority will should prevail with reference to the determination of social policy at any given moment, but that all minorities should be fully protected in their right to attempt to become the majority through persuasion based on reason, free discussion and majority consent standing as the road to decisions.

9. The determination that there shall be freedom for peaceful social change through the operation of the majority will, and the insistence upon the right to peace and to the peaceful settlement of disputes.

10. The assertion of the right of individual freedom—the right of persons to resist excessive social pressures; the recognition of the right of each person to think his own thoughts, speak his own mind, and worship in his own way so long as he does not thereby deny the same right to others.<sup>1</sup>

Perhaps it may be regarded as a truism to say that the school does not fit the contemporary society in which we live.

Among the changes in contemporary society for which one can find ample documentation in the social sciences, if

they are not accepted out of hand, are the following:

1. Those which have radically changed our occupational patterns, given us a high degree of specialization in doing the world's work, and made us highly interdependent on a world-wide scale.

2. Those which have shifted from the workman the ownership and control of his tools, progressively reduced farm owners to farm tenants, made for the elimination of the small independent shopkeeper and merchant, and given rise to an industrial proletariat.

3. Those which have made for the vastly increased concentration of wealth and economic (and, hence, political) power, produced greater economic and social inequalities, and given rise to more rigid social stratification and the sharpening of class conflicts.

4. Those which have removed from the home many of its economic functions and rendered it less and less capable of caring for (as it once typically did) virtually all of the basic needs of its members for economic security, physical protection, education, recreation, medical care, and so forth—needs which often must now necessarily somehow be met by other social agencies.

5. Those which have resulted in raising the age of entry into productive occupations, denied gainful employment to an appalling proportion of youth, and through the operation of these and other factors forced into the schools a vastly enlarged and drastically more heterogeneous youth population manifesting types and degrees of educational needs which the traditional secondary school was never intended, and hence not structured, to meet.

6. Those which have revolutionized our methods of transportation, greatly increased the mobility of our people, vastly heightened our interdependence both on a national and on an international scale, and made obsolete many of our inherited methods of social control.

7. Those which have revolutionized our methods of communication, virtually eliminated space, created new mind-forming agencies, and ushered in an age of propaganda in which inherited methods of social control have little or no pertinence.

8. Those which have greatly increased the amount of leisure time and drastically changed our recreational patterns.

9. Those which have resulted in the wasteful depletion of our natural resources, and made the likelihood of maintaining this as a "permanent country" imperatively contingent upon

<sup>1</sup> Harold Hand, "America Must Have Genuinely Democratic High Schools," *General Education in the American High School*, pp. 5-6. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942.

the formulating and carrying out of new policies directly antithetical at many points to present practices.

10. Those which have given us "want in the midst of plenty," for example, those which have made material abundance a physical possibility but which, in addition to denying gainful employment to a large segment of the working population, keep the consumers' buying power drastically below the level necessary to absorb all the goods and services which the nation is capable of producing.

11. Those which have made derivative groups dominant in a society which we are still attempting (futilely) to direct through primary-group controls. As Angell has recently pointed out, in all the major aspects of our social life relatively intimate face-to-face groups or structures. This is, of course, a direct result of that mechanization of most aspects of life which is progressively robbing the neighborhood of many of its functions. Since it is impossible, in the face of science and the machine, for us to return to our former more simple way of life, new controls which realistically take into account the changed and changing structure of our organized group life must be devised (that is, learned) if social disintegration is to be avoided.

From the charter and the changes in contemporary society just enumerated, two implications are crystal clear: (1) general education at the secondary level should be provided for and made equally available to all youth of secondary school age; and (2) general education must provide those learning experiences which will enable one to take his place in society, except for specific vocational skills to be received immediately before or after being placed on a job. To the former of these the balance of this paper is addressed.

I have no wish to be an alarmist or to point out the defects of an institution in which I have spent all my professional life. I take this occasion to point out both the strength and the weakness of general education in the secondary school in the belief that the men and women here are leaders who will strive

insofar as possible to remedy these defects and to capitalize the strengths.

#### FACTORS WHICH PREVENT UNIVERSAL SECONDARY EDUCATION

An important factor which prevents the American secondary school from being the democratic institution it should be is the elimination of certain segments of our population from the secondary school. The first elimination is on the basis of intelligence. For twenty years surveys of secondary education have indicated that the less able pupils were constantly being driven out of the secondary school. Among the more recent ones a study completed in Maryland in 1941 indicates that a child with an I. Q. of 110 has three times the chance of finishing high school which one with an I. Q. of 90 has.<sup>1</sup>

Only recently have concerted attempts been made by such organizations as the National Association of Secondary School Principals to take care of the "educationally neglected and the non-academic."<sup>2</sup>

The secondary school is also selective on an economic basis. We were concerned with the educational daydream—the belief that attendance at the secondary school led to the professions and the white collar jobs. Those who were not interested in or could not profit from this curriculum we dismissed as unworthy. For twenty years we have known that pupils from the lower economic brackets attended high school in smaller numbers than pupils from more favored families. Such findings culminated with the researches of Bell in 1938 which indicate that children in the

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 4.

<sup>2</sup> "Promising Practices in Secondary Education," *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, No. 92, October, 1940.

B. L. Dodds, "That All May Learn," *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, No. 85, November, 1939.



highest economic brackets continued beyond the eighth grade eleven times as frequently as children from the lowest economic group.<sup>1</sup> Only one out of ten of the economically underprivileged who got into high school continued to graduation; eight out of ten from the privileged economic group did so. Bell concluded on the basis of his evidence that the strongest single factor in determining the education a child will receive is the father's occupation; and this dark picture of a democratic representation in the high school has been painted by every investigator who has troubled to find the facts.

Residence of the pupil is a third selective factor. This is evidenced by the relative proportion of urban and rural youth of high school age who are enrolled in the secondary school. Approximately 30 per cent of rural and 75 per cent of urban youth attend high school. In many states over 90 per cent of the teen age boys and girls are so enrolled. Coupled with this is a known fact that there are eleven million children living on farms today who, if they are not killed in the war, will be living in cities in 1955. These children are found principally in our rural problem areas—the cut-over territory of Minnesota, Wisconsin and Michigan, the Appalachian-Ozark region, the southeastern states, the deep south, the southwest and the dust-bowl. Combined with meager educational possibilities are low cultural resources in the home, a low plane of living no matter what index is used for measurement, inadequate financial resources, large families, and, frequently, personal despair that conditions for the individual will ever improve. It is perfectly evident that education for adjustment of these eleven million and those who will follow them is badly needed. How does the hill-billy of Tennessee

adjust to the tank factory in Detroit? How does the underprivileged child from the cut-over territory in the Great Lakes region adjust to Oshkosh, Kalamazoo, or Minneapolis? How does secondary education help the Negroes who swarm to Chicago and other metropolitan areas to adjust to the new environment to which they come? In my opinion education for the adjustment of the eleven million youth who are now on farms and who are destined to live in the cities, and provision of educational facilities for all of the young people who will follow them is a major educational problem in America. We have failed to provide education for adjustment for those who came to us in the last quarter of a century. Are we to continue a process which is detrimental to the receiving community and tragic for the individual migrant?

A fourth reason why education is not generally available to young people is the cash cost of attending the "free" American high school. High school principals when asked what the cost of attending school is, usually estimate \$10 to \$15; but studies which have been made indicate that the median cost is from \$100 to \$125 a year, ranging from \$95 in the freshman year to \$154 in the senior year.<sup>1</sup>

If one accepts the socio-economic classification of Alba Edwards<sup>2</sup> and distributes the expenditures of the various groups, children of the professional class spend \$154; of the proprietor group \$130; clerical workers, \$124; skilled workers, \$112; semi-skilled workers, \$52; and unskilled workers, \$54.<sup>3</sup> These, then, are the cash costs of attending the "free American high

<sup>1</sup> *Ibid.*, p. 19.

<sup>2</sup> Alba Edwards, *Social Economic Grouping of all Gainfully Employed Workers of the United States*. U.S. Bureau of Census. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1938.

<sup>3</sup> Hand, *op. cit.*, p. 20.

<sup>1</sup> Hand, *op. cit.*, p. 15.

school" for lunches, class plays, books, football tickets, pencils and the other incidentals without which one cannot attend school decently.

It is perfectly clear that the underprivileged economically cannot spend as much as the more privileged economic groups and consequently tend to drop out of the secondary school. Hand has assumed that if children were not "frozen out" of certain activities the six economic groups would be represented in the extracurricular activities of the school, roughly, in proportion to their percentage of enrollment in school. Just as large a percentage of the children of unskilled laborers would play in the band and go to school parties as would the children of doctors and lawyers. His findings are summarized in the following quotations:

All in all, forty-one comparisons with the so-called "basic percentages" earlier alluded to were made in this study. In seven of the activities the youth from the lower income brackets were completely "frozen out." In eighteen others their participation was sixty per cent or more below reasonable expectation. In thirty-two of the forty-one activities their participation ranged from twenty to one hundred per cent below expectation. In only six of the forty-one activities were the more economically underprivileged youth found to have a representation equal in magnitude to that of their relative number in the total population of the school. In short, the two topmost socio-economic groups had about thirty-five per cent more representation or participation than would have been the case had they been represented in proportion to their relative number in the total population. Conversely, the common-labor group of students had forty per cent less representations or participations than would have been the case had all welfare groups been proportionately represented in the student life of the school.

Since 1935 the federal government has tended to alleviate this condition through the Student Work Division of the National Youth Administration. Young people from lower economic groups have been allowed to earn money

for the performance of socially desirable work in the school and in the community. A recent reduction of three million dollars in the funds available to pay high school boys and girls has resulted in the withdrawal of from seven thousand underprivileged young people from the secondary school; and yet there are strongly entrenched forces in our national life which seek to eliminate entirely aid to young people. Indeed there are within our own profession those who are more concerned with jurisdiction over the program than in allowing young people to earn sufficient money to attend high school and keep their self respect.

A fifth factor which has prevented secondary education from fitting the culture in which it exists is the educational daydream. There may have been a time when all boys and girls who enrolled in the secondary school could hope for white collar jobs. That day has passed. With over a million young people graduating from the secondary school each year and the large number of college trained people available for the small number of clerical jobs which are vacated each year, it is perfectly clear that only a small percentage of young men and women can enter the white collar and professional occupations. Nearly one-half of our gainfully employed are engaged in the skilled and semiskilled occupations.<sup>1</sup> It is in these occupations that young people must find employment. It is in these occupations that nearly everyone must secure his initial employment and begin the process of "upgrading." The curriculum of the secondary school has not faced these prospects. The information which is furnished in courses on vocations is unrealistic and out of proportion. In the North Carolina youth survey it was found that of twenty-six

<sup>1</sup> Edwards, *op. cit.*, p. 7.



white boys who wished to enter the professions, one did so as his first full time job; for every girl who desired domestic service, twenty-six received it. If we are to teach young people to live in the society which we have built, we must forget the educational daydream in which both parents and educators have indulged and show our young people society as it exists.

I do not mean to imply that no one may rise in society. I certainly do believe that a small percentage of gifted people from the lower economic levels should be given financial aid and scholarship assistance so that they may arise to the socially valuable potentialities which they possess. I would not be understood to mean that parents should not wish well for their children, but I would want children to know the facts so that we might not have cultured but dissatisfied graduates of a liberal arts college running filling stations, or a boy who thought he was a tool and die maker operating a drill press.

#### FACTORS WHICH HAVE INCREASED THE AVAILABILITY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Some of the factors which we have mentioned as hindering secondary education from being realistic and of maximum benefit have also tended to universalize secondary education. The American daydream, while it has resulted in frustration on the part of individuals, has undoubtedly had a beneficial effect in increasing the number who have attended the secondary school. In like fashion the federal subsidy to needy students through the Student Work Division of the National Youth Administration has also tended to universalize secondary education. The support of organized labor and the belief of our citizens in education have had a considerable influence on expanding high school facilities. The growth of or-

ganized labor offers one of the greatest opportunities to extend secondary education. Support by labor must be cultivated, however. This implies, of course, that the superintendent of schools will spend some time with the labor leaders instead of spending all of his time with the country club group and the chamber of commerce.

There are certain forces within the profession such as the Eight Year Study of the Progressive Education Association; the findings of the American Youth Commission; the excellent Year Books of the National Council of Teachers of English; the National Council for the Social Studies; the American Association of School Administrators; the National Association of Secondary School Principals, and others. Certainly the greatest impetus to secondary education and its universalization can be found in the social changes which, in the past forty years, have made it unnecessary for survival to use the work of young people. We have been prone to believe that the enrollment doubled each decade because the schools were so excellent. But that is not true. Basically the secondary schools have doubled each decade because there was nothing else for the young people to do but go to school. They were in large part excluded from the work of the world until it became necessary to use them in the war effort. I believe we shall see within a year a sharp reduction in the number of the sixteen-, seventeen-, and eighteen-year old children in high school because their services will be demanded in community and industrial occupations to preserve our democracy.

The custodial function of education makes work experience a prerequisite to graduating from or dropping out of school. In an earlier age children learned to work in the home but such opportunities, except in rural areas, have largely disappeared. The work experiences which



most of you enjoyed as young people are denied your children. Until recently the school did not furnish work experience to young people but there are encouraging signs that an ever increasing number are doing so. Publications of the National Association of Secondary School Principals and of the Progressive Education Association multiply illustrations by the hundreds of how the school is meeting this new responsibility.

This paper deals only with one implication for secondary education of the research findings in the social sciences. There are many others. Among them are the population structure of the United States, free enterprise, an administered price system, the mobility of labor, the productive and consumptive capacity of America, planning and its effect on education after the war, the problem of an adequate youth program and a host of others. In applying the implications of this field our Association and the Commission have been remiss. In the fields of human growth and development, in the psychology of learning, and in curriculum construction we have done much better. There are indications

that some leaders in the secondary school are aware of what needs to be done and are active. But, if I may borrow a phrase from Max Lerner, it is later than you think; just as it was later than many of us, particularly in the Middle West, realized before Pearl Harbor. Because it was later in a military sense than many of us knew, it is now increasingly difficult to defend our democracy. For the secondary school to interpret democracy to all the children of all the people, it is also later than we think. The lag between what is known in the social sciences and what is practiced in the secondary school can be overcome if we all participate. The exclusion of those groups not now adequately represented in the schools can be repaired. Let it not be said of the secondary school that it provided too little, and that too late, for its young people to understand the democracy for which they fight. Or if that must be said, let us not be accused of having been unwilling to revise our curriculum so that the secondary school could profitably enroll all the children of all the people.

## SOCIAL FUNCTIONS AND ISSUES IN GENERAL EDUCATION

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THERE are several fundamental social issues involved in a program of general education at the high school level. This paper will discuss these issues.

The American secondary school takes in nearly all boys and girls at the age of twelve to fourteen and serves them for varying periods of time, retaining about half of them until they graduate at the approximate age of eighteen. What does it do for these boys and girls that justifies society in supporting the secondary schools? What does it do for the maintenance and improvement of the social order? Secondary education performs the following five functions:

1. *Sorting and selecting persons for places of responsibility in society.*—As children grow up they are sifted, sorted, ticketed, and routed through life by agencies visible and invisible, personal and impersonal. The school system is the chief of these agencies. The elementary school starts the process by sorting out a group of low intelligence, labelling them "non readers" and shunting them aside into "opportunity classes," "ungraded rooms," or otherwise separating them from the main group that makes its regular progress through the grades. The elementary school delivers about 85 percent of its human freight at the doors of the secondary school. Here the boys and girls are inspected and often assorted into groups called "college preparatory," "commercial," "vocational." They are inspected not only for brains and learning ability, but also for skin color, cut of clothes, pronunciation, table manners,

and parental bank account. Just how this inspection and the consequent sorting takes place is a question we cannot answer clearly. The process is largely impersonal and takes place without much conscious attention by the school authorities. Strangely enough the boys and girls are not inspected for moral integrity, honesty, or other qualities which go under the name of "character."

We can see how much selection takes place in the high school by looking at the numbers of young people who reach various levels of the educational ladder. Table I gives the number of youth out of a thousand who were reaching certain rungs of the ladder on two dates a generation apart, 1938 and 1910. It is clear, from this table, that both the elementary school and the high school are much less selective than they were a generation ago. In 1910, less than one child in three entered the ninth grade, and less than one in three of these students graduated from high school. In 1938, more than eight out of ten children entered the ninth grade, and more than half of these students graduated from high school. The high school today is a less efficient sorting and selecting agency than it was a generation ago. But it still performs that service to some extent, so that the phrase "high school graduate" has some significance to an employer or to the Civil Service Commission.

The use of schools as a sorting device has been carried much further in other countries. The Chinese have used a system of schools and examinations for centuries to select out people for gov-

ernmental positions. In Europe the schools have examinations beginning at the age of ten or eleven to test a student's fitness for higher schools, which in turn lead to the professions, the army, and the civil service. The American educational system has never used examinations in this way. But there is a tendency in that direction now, shown by the National Teacher Examination project, the Graduate Record Examination project of the Carnegie Foundation, the American Chemical Society's recog-

ture is a well-known American phenomenon to which we give the name "social mobility." The social mobility which was such a striking feature of the nineteenth century American scene was not due to education. It was due to three causes—free land, expansion of business and industry, and rapid increase in population. Each new generation of young people graduated into an expanding universe of opportunity. Anyone with ability and character could rise in the world. Education was not

TABLE I

THE SCHOOL AS A SELECTING AGENCY — NUMBER OF PEOPLE OUT OF A THOUSAND WHO REACH A GIVEN LEVEL OF THE EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM

Level	Approximate Age	1938	1910
First year high school.....	14	850	310
Third year high school.....	16	580	140
Graduation from high school.....	18	450	93
Entrance to college or a similar educational institution.....	18	150	67
Graduation from college (Bachelor's degree).....	22	70	23
Master's degree.....		9	1.5
Doctor of Philosophy.....		1.3	

inition of the Bachelor's degree in chemistry in accredited colleges as certifying that a man is a competent chemist, and the Civil Service Commission's growing use of the Bachelor's degree in its specifications for certain civil service positions. It will be noticed, however, that these examinations and marks of inspection come at the end of the college, which is definitely a sorting and selecting agency in America.

2. *Equalizing opportunity for social advancement.*—Pestalozzi spoke of the educational system as the "staircase in the house of injustice." Society is the 'house of injustice,' with its social inequalities to which children are born; and education gives children born to low status a chance to climb higher in the social structure.

Climbing higher in the social struc-

needed for this purpose. Family, church, and community gave young people the character which fortified their native wit and made them push ahead. Only a very few used high school and college as an avenue of mobility, rising thereby into the professions of medicine, law, the ministry, and teaching. This was a narrow pathway compared with the

<sup>1</sup> This table is based on enrolment figures for school and college appearing in the Biennial Surveys of the United States Office of Education. For each level the number of persons enrolled is compared with the population of the corresponding age group, e.g., the number graduating from high school is compared with the number of eighteen year olds. It is especially difficult to ascertain the number entering college or a similar institution since the reported number of college freshmen contains some second-year students who are still classified as freshmen and since a fraction of those attending business colleges and nursing schools should be considered as entering an institution of college grade.



broad highway provided by agriculture, business, and industry for social mobility.

But the twentieth century has seen a change in the pattern of social mobility. The frontier with its free land has disappeared, and industry has been subject to cycles of contraction and expansion which produce downward as well as upward social mobility. On the other hand, the technical and service professions have expanded, with increasing demand for people trained as chemists, engineers, teachers, and the like. Anyone aspiring to these positions needs general education and special skill. Native wit and perseverance are not sufficient. Increasingly, the avenue of social mobility runs through high school and college. The American people have learned what the people of older cultures have learned, that the schools are the social elevators in a hardening social structure.

American parents therefore send their children to the high school as a means of helping them to rise in the world, to get better jobs and higher status. The high school is expected to provide equal opportunity to all. The college preparatory curriculum is favored by most parents over the commercial or vocational curriculum because it leads on to the higher social positions. They wish to have their children admitted freely to the college preparatory course and just as freely to college.

As a result of the desire for social mobility and the belief that it can be achieved through education, the college preparatory courses in the high schools and the professional courses in the colleges are clogged with a mass of young people who are struggling to get ahead of each other on the social ladder. The high school admits some six times as many students to the college preparatory course as actually finish college

work. Since there are only a limited number of positions of high social and economic status in our society, either the number of young people who aim toward these positions must be limited or there must be a scramble in which the majority are disappointed and defeated. This is not an altogether pleasant prospect, as educators freely admit. The solution of the problem is not an easy one. How can the high school equalize opportunity for social advancement without encouraging many young people to hope and prepare for higher social positions which will not be available?

### 3. *Education for the common life.*—

The American high school, which comes so near to enrolling "all the children of all the people," has a responsibility to educate boys and girls for the everyday affairs of life and for those things which are of communal concern. This is the function of the common elementary school in nineteenth century America. The elementary school made people literate and gave them a common background of social experience and literary-historical tradition so that they could cooperate politically and economically. In America the high school now supplements the elementary school in this function. Therefore the high school is concerned with education for citizenship, for home and family life, for conservation, and with consumer education, safety education, health education, and so on.

It is in the development of this function that the American high school differs most from secondary schools in other countries. Since, in other countries, enrollment in secondary schools does not exceed 15 percent of the youth, the secondary school can hardly provide an education for the common life in those countries. In the United States the development of this kind of pro-

gram has taken place within the past twenty years, the period during which it has been possible to speak of the high school as a common school for all kinds of boys and girls.

For the great majority of boys and girls it seems that this must be the principal function of the high school. Since they cannot use the high school to climb to positions of higher social status, they should find in the high school a means to a more satisfactory life as citizens, parents, neighbors, and consumers.

4. *Preparation for an occupation.*—One of the principal developmental tasks of adolescent boys and girls in America is choosing and preparing for an occupation. The choice must be made, at least as to general category of occupation, by the time a youth reaches the age of graduation from high school. The work of preparation, except for the occupations requiring the least skill and special knowledge, must be started during the high-school period. A college preparatory course is a preparation for a certain family of occupations. It is not so specialized as a more strictly "vocational" course because it takes more time and the specialization will come later. Every subject taught in the high school except those designed as "education for the common life" is a vocational course and helps to serve the function of preparation for an occupation at least for some people.

There is no doubt that for the great majority of students the high-school period is the time when occupational choices are made and the foundations of occupational preparation are laid down. That the high school has a responsibility for aiding the student in his choice and preparation for an occupation is generally agreed by educators.

5. *Care of an idle age group.*—The recent enormous growth of secondary

education in this country is certainly in part the result of the appearance of an idle age group. Adolescents were idle. Their productive labor was not needed by society, nor even permitted. The high school took the place of immediately useful work in the lives of many boys and girls. Adolescents were tending to become a redundant segment of the population. They did not fit, in any vital way, into the social order.

The educators who sensed the needs of the time saw that young people needed to be reinstated or reincorporated into the society. Therefore they began to develop an educational program emphasizing work experience and community service, as well as the education for the common life described above. This program was designed to provide a place in society for the adolescent age group and to give them a sense of usefulness. At the same time the government established the CCC and the NYA with similar objectives. Some people question whether the schools can perform this custodial function or should do so. Others question whether the federal government should do it and claim that the responsibility should be placed upon school authorities.

The argument is an academic one at the moment, for the labor of young people is needed now, jobs are plentiful, and many boys and girls are dropping out of school to go to work. But it is generally prophesied that when the war is over there will be serious unemployment among youth, and the schools or some other agencies must care for those who cannot find work.

#### WHAT ARE THE ISSUES?

There probably is no educator or any other person who has thought about social and educational policy who does not agree that the American high school must perform all of these functions.

The issue which divides people is the amount of emphasis to be put upon one or another of the five functions. The various functions are so different that an increase of emphasis upon one often forces a decrease of emphasis upon another. For example, if more emphasis is placed upon using the high school as a sorting and selection device (function 1) less emphasis can be placed upon education for the common life (function 3). Again, the function of equalizing opportunity for social advancement (function 2) is stressed so heavily by some people that they seriously under-emphasize both the sorting and selecting function (1) and the function of preparation for an occupation (4).

The authors of *General Education in the American High School*<sup>1</sup> stress education for the common life. They also believe strongly in using the high school to care for unemployed youth. They would be criticized by some people for neglecting the sorting and selecting function. They probably are on middle ground with respect to preparation for an occupation. They probably would disagree among themselves on the extent to which the high school can be used to equalize opportunity for social advancement, but as a group they would give less weight to this function than would the majority of educators.

Critics of the high school lambaste it because it does not give its whole effort to serving their one pet function, whatever it is. This is a luxury which

school men cannot afford. They know that their job is to work out a balance among the various social functions so that the high school can serve many different kinds of boys and girls in such a way as to maintain and improve the social order.

The task of the educator is to make the high school work both as an agent of social mobility and as an agent of social cohesion. Our democratic society needs both. Social mobility is needed as a reward for individual effort. People must be sure that ability and hard work will enable a person to rise in the social scale or they will not "stick together" and support our governmental and social institutions. But the amount of social mobility is necessarily limited by the small number of higher social positions and by the fact that this number is not expanding rapidly. If the high school encourages many more young people to hope and strive for social mobility than can possibly find higher social positions, there is bound to be widespread frustration and social disorder. Accordingly, the high school must help many people find satisfaction in other ways than through social climbing. The high school must promote social cohesion by putting a proper emphasis upon education for the common life and upon the other functions which promote social cohesion.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> For a fuller discussion of this matter, see the chapter by Robert J. Havighurst entitled "Education for Social Cohesion in a Democracy," pp. 18-41 in *Education in a Democracy*, edited by Newton Edwards. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941.

<sup>1</sup> Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942. Pp. xvi + 320.



## GENERAL EDUCATION IN ACTION

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It was my privilege as a contributor to the North Central report on General Education to survey the outstanding work of a number of secondary schools and to report on six of them in the current volume on General Education.<sup>1</sup> The six schools included are:

Wells High School, Chicago, Illinois—a school in an underprivileged, mixed racial, urban community.

Shorewood High School, Shorewood, Wisconsin—a school in a suburban, well-to-do, residential community.

Eugene High School, Eugene, Oregon—a school in a small city having a homogeneous population of northern European stock.

Carpinteria Union High School, Carpinteria, California—a school serving a small citrus-growing community where 40 percent of the people are of Mexican ancestry.

Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio—a school located in a great industrial community where a considerable percentage of the population come from countries bordering on the Mediterranean Sea.

Moultrie High School, Moultrie, Georgia—a rural high school in a sub-marginal, agricultural area of the South.

The list of schools and different types of communities clearly indicate that an effort was made to cover general education as it has developed under widely differing conditions. I can today give only two outstanding examples of these secondary schools which, guided by our fine democratic traditions, are striving to meet the needs of their pupils. It is important to note further that in every case an attempt was made to describe only those aspects of these school programs which were thought to illustrate

most promising practices in general education. A casual visitor to any one of the schools included might well find mediocre or even poor practice. Our purpose was to report only the best, believing as we did, that such practices would be most stimulating and valuable to all who are concerned with furthering democratic secondary education for all secondary school pupils.

And now to a consideration of general education practices.

### THE WELLS HIGH SCHOOL

Wells High School, Chicago, is operating under the most adverse economic and social conditions. The neighborhood in which the school is located is a "blighted" area of the city. Sociological data procured from surveys give a picture of poor housing, bad health conditions, and severe economic distress. In 1937 only 44 percent of the fathers of Wells pupils were regularly employed. For considerable periods of time more than one-half of the families have been on relief. Mothers worked outside the home in 19 percent of the cases, mostly as scrubwomen, dish-washers, and sewing machine operators. In many cases they did piecework in the home. The average size of family was six persons, while 71 percent of the families owned no property worthy of the name. The Wells school neighborhood is predominantly Polish with smaller groups of Italians and Russians. Contacts of the children outside their own district are meager in the extreme, few having been away from the metropolitan area.

One would have to search far for

<sup>1</sup> *General Education in the American High School*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942. Pp. xvi + 320.

more difficult conditions under which to operate an American high school. Academic traditions are foreign to these pupils. The conditions of home and community living have held them to the stark realities of survival, in an industrial system characterized by waste of both natural and human resources. They are down to the bare realities of life. To be meaningful the curriculum must deal intelligently with the actual conditions these boys and girls know.

With the emphasis on meeting the needs of practical everyday living throughout the school, in courses of study and out-of-class activities as well, seven aspects of social living help guide administrators, teachers and pupils alike. An attempt is made to deal realistically with work, social relationships, health, thought and its communication, leisure, economic consciousness, and ethical and spiritual character. The foregoing aspects on functions of living serve as integrating centers for work in all required subjects.

Out-of-class experiences, such as work in school service organizations, NYA service, earning school lunches, service as assistants to instructors, and work in libraries are related to classroom study. Work experiences in the home, chores connected with home-keeping, care of children, employment of parents, and preparation for festive holidays are likewise related to required courses.

Work experiences in the community have been stimulated through conferences of staff members with local industrial, professional, and trade leaders. Not the least important is the part-time work undertaken by pupils, guided by the school vocational placement office. Placement services are provided not alone for pupils and alumni but also for all pupils who have dropped out of the high school.

Before school closes in June, each

pupil plans his summer vocational activities with his home-room teacher as well as activities in the six other areas of social living already listed. The possibilities of various jobs are discussed as well as employment at home, possible savings, and budgeting. The nature of this conference which also covers leisure time, health, and other interests is recorded on a blank provided for the purpose. Every September, in another individual conference with his counselor, the student takes stock of his summer experiences.

It is impossible to separate work experiences from leisure or the other areas of living thought to be important. Attention has just been called to the fact that in working out his "Vocational Plan" each pupil discusses and plans for other types of experience such as leisure. Leisure time pursuits become a part of required courses as do those involving work. Everyone in school is expected to engage in school activities. These include social dancing, which is carried on as a part of the physical education program. A strong intramural program has been developed. As has already been explained, an attempt is made to extend activities out into the community. If a pupil engages in the activity program of a church, a settlement house, the Y.M.C.A., Scouts, or other organization, he records this on an out-of-school activity record card and has the card signed by the adult who is in charge of the program. This card becomes a permanent part of his personnel record in the school.

The teachers at Wells have surveyed the immediate area for leisure time and health opportunities for boys and girls. The results have been published for the use of teachers, pupils and parents under the title, *What Your Neighborhood Offers*. Another school bulletin, *Vocation Hints for Wells High* lists dozens

of suggestions. This bulletin includes both leisure time and vocational hints and opportunities.

The Wells School is making a remarkably successful effort to improve the health of pupils. Achieving and maintaining good health is a major concern in the science and health courses and, indeed, throughout the school. Four years ago a health center was organized under the direction of a member of the science department, who is also a practicing physician. Much of the activity revolves around this clinic. The physician in charge is aided by a teacher, a dietician, and a WPA clerk.

In science classrooms students study regular healthful habits of living, care of eyes, ears and teeth, prevention of diseases, mental health, and sex adjustment. Balanced diets, developed in the home economics department, are followed and evaluated by students individually in science classes. Growth deterrents such as crippling diseases, narcotics, and stimulants are part of core units of learning. Each student has one individual health conference with his science teacher during each semester. Students with serious health problems are urged to visit the health center, where ailments receive advisory attention. Students actually ill are assisted in finding the proper medical service.

In the Wells Civic Association pupils of the school control, direct, and are responsible for all school activities. They handle thousands of dollars each semester. It is a pleasure to talk with the many students working in the Civic Association office as I have done a number of times. They know what they are doing, show a real sense of responsibility, and are always pleased to explain to a visitor the intricacies of their organization.

I have known the program in the Wells High School over a period of

years. After having been out of contact with the school for a semester or two, it is stimulating to return. There are always new and challenging activities under way. Through the imaginative leadership of the principal and the fine teacher leaders this school is striving in its program to do the things which are necessary for youth in one of the culturally and economically poorest communities in the United States. This requires high courage. It is not easy for all teachers to get the vision of what should and can be done. Nor do all teachers yet know how to work efficiently and democratically together. Pupils, too, have to be led to work effectively together and to make the best use of the meagre resources at hand. Achievements under adverse conditions come slowly, but they are coming none the less surely at Wells High School.

#### MOULTRIE HIGH SCHOOL

Moultrie, Georgia, the county seat of Colquitt County, is a growing town of about twelve thousand people. It is largely an agricultural center for the surrounding economically poor rural area. Before 1925, rural children in the area outside the town had been deprived of any high school education. At that time, however, a special tax was levied throughout the country to defray the cost of a combined city and county high school which now has an enrollment of 867 pupils. Of this number, 431, or approximately one-half of the student body, come from the surrounding farming community. Since 1925 the dual responsibility of caring for a cross-section of both urban and rural youth has presented problems, many of which have not as yet been satisfactorily solved. The courageous facing of their enlarged educational tasks by teachers, administrators, parents, and laymen accounts for the unusual and outstanding work



now being done in the Moultrie High School.

In the fall of 1938 six members of the high school faculty were selected to make a study of Moultrie, which would include facts relative to community conditions, opportunities for youth, and the needs of youth in the area. This survey particularly emphasized economic opportunities inasmuch as the school program in commercial work had for some time been thought inadequate. Over a period of five months 123 business and professional men were interviewed.

It is interesting to note that the data collected with regard to the qualifications required in business stressed general educational values. Among these were "habits of clear thinking," "development of initiative," and "industry and perseverance." Also included were such specific skills as oral and written English, functional mathematics and salesmanship.

Many leads for the improvement of the whole school program came out of this survey. Specifically, the committee of six recommended that only superior English students be allowed to take shorthand classes which prepared for the stenographic work. The survey had shown that each year Moultrie could absorb an average of only five or six stenographers of good training and superior ability. Previously, numerous students having this preparation had been unable to get positions after graduation. It was discovered, also, that local business could absorb only about twenty-eight salesmen. The commercial program was, as the result of the survey, changed to train relatively few for such jobs and to emphasize for most students in commercial classes a consumer's knowledge of bookkeeping and business.

Facts were collected in the survey which indicated that, with the exception

of grocery stores and ten-cent stores, business men did not wish to employ anyone under nineteen years of age. Therefore, changes were made in courses which would make the work more meaningful to the non-academic type of student who ordinarily would tend to drop out of school.

A placement bureau was established to aid in getting jobs. A cooperative market was also set up in the school in order to help farm youth in making a little money which would enable them to continue in school. The market was run by two NYA girls under the supervision of a home economics teacher. The girls planned many projects at school, such as gardening, poultry raising, and the canning of fruits and vegetables, in order to have produce to sell. In connection with the work they also made a study of community marketing conditions which was of value both to themselves and their parents.

Throughout the year the school operates a non-profit cannery. Meats are canned in winter and fruits and vegetables in summer. Boys in vocational agriculture classes preserve their fruits and vegetables on shares. The board of education furnishes cans and pays all expenses of canning. The school receives one-half the products and uses them in the cafeteria.

Groups of students make surveys each year to discover breeding places of mosquitoes. They also cooperate with the city and county health authorities to rid the county of malaria. A large number of rural school children have made their homes mosquito-proof by making screen doors and windows in the school shop.

A community beautification program was undertaken by the entire student body. The project included several phases, one of which was a tree-planting campaign. Of the whole student body,

750 out of 835 have planted trees, the total number of which finally reached eleven thousand. These trees were planted around the homes, the school, and on vacant lots. In addition, a large number were planted for commercial purposes.

The Agricultural Department has begun a nursery. The shrubs were obtained from shrubbery pruned by the boys in agriculture. As an outgrowth of these projects, it is hoped that students will build up attitudes of appreciation for the beautiful and an understanding of the needs for conservation of natural resources.

A full-time field worker was employed by the school two years ago for the purpose of continuing the rural program with ex-vocational agriculture boys. This worker set up an organization called the American Vocational Farmers Association which now has a membership of 185 boys enrolled in vocational agriculture. The director supervises the farm projects of these boys and holds study groups in rural communities. Each boy attends an average of twenty classes during the year. Frequent picnics and social gatherings for membership of the association are sponsored for the purpose of improving recreational life of rural communities.

In the last four years the Moultrie High School has developed unusual programs in arts and crafts, music and physical education. The arts and crafts department was added to the program in September, 1939. As part of the music program the high school band gives weekly concerts on the court house lawn, and during the school year concerts are given in a number of rural communities. The band director is employed on a twelve-month basis to direct these community-wide programs.

The school is furnishing leadership not only in music but also in art and

social recreation throughout the region. In the summer of 1940, eighty rural teachers did special work in music and arts and crafts for five weeks under the supervision of the teachers of these subjects at the high school.

Experimentation at Moultrie is not confined to the areas already discussed. Changes are being made in content and teaching procedures in the academic fields, in social studies, English, mathematics, and science. One experimental course in social studies, called a field course in community life, is very suggestive for educating non-academic students as well as for the enrichment of all social studies courses in many public high schools.

In English the teachers at Moultrie have for several years stressed a free reading program. This has now spread through the various subjects offered in the school. A descriptive report regarding this program states the following assumptions on which it is based:

It is not enough to teach the principles of democracy. The free reading program gives the students the opportunity to develop personal initiative and a keen sense of values, and contributes to self-reliance, as well as providing for individual growth.

This reading program does not seem to differ greatly from that employed in many schools except that it is much more extensive than in most.

Moultrie teachers find that pupils read more than twice as many books as the minimum requirement of the past; their general information is broader; they know more specific facts and are more alert to conditions around them. It is felt that the in-school reading and the out-of-school reading become a part of one program with more carry-over values for adult life.

Extensive experimentation is also being carried on in mathematics and science. In mathematics the program

stresses the general mathematics approach which is now replacing for many students in the secondary school the specialized subjects of algebra and geometry. When the present and future needs of the majority of students are taken into account, as at Moultrie, such a change in mathematics content and method seems both obvious and necessary. At the same time those students requiring algebra and geometry for college receive the more formal preparation. The science program at Moultrie stresses general science, with specialized chemistry and physics for the few who need them, following the same approach as that made in mathematics.

Probably few schools in the country are making a more consistent attempt to meet pupil and community needs than the Moultrie High School. This

school has found, as have many other fine high schools, that the old type of teacher preparation is inadequate to meet real student and community needs. Special competence must include other knowledges besides those found in the well-established subject-matter fields. Understanding of children and adolescence, the acquisition of techniques for studying children and for applying information thus gained to teaching, a knowledge of community survey methods and community problems along with their place in the education of youth, comprehension of the meaning of democracy with techniques for achieving it in education—these are some of the special competences which teachers in the areas of general education must have if they are to be successful in the modern high school.



## GENERAL EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL: LOCAL USE OF THE BOOK

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THERE is considerable recognition of the fact that it is dangerous to speak in terms of averages. For the purposes of this report, however, there seem to be definite advantages in thinking in terms of how the volume, *General Education in the American High School*, might be used in a so-called average high school with its typical teaching and supervisory staff, students, plant, supplies, and equipment. Through personal connection with schools enrolling from two hundred to twenty-two hundred pupils drawn from rural and urban environments of varied socio-economic status, an experience supplemented by a year's visitation of more than one hundred schools in the metropolitan area of Chicago in 1940-41, the speaker has been impressed with the fact that in spite of many significant differences among schools there are many more points on which great similarity exists. For instance, administrators are busy with the day-by-day routines of management and teachers are busy with the job of teaching five or six classes a day—often large ones. In the smaller schools, several daily preparations must be made. Moreover, school plants, supplies, and equipment are most frequently geared to a relatively traditional philosophy of the curriculum. Although staffs are interested in finding better ways of doing things, by and large, they do not find time and energy to do so much as most of them desire. There are, of course, numerous exceptions and degrees of difference in this so-called average picture. The situation is brought to mind

simply as a frame of reference for considering how a volume on general education may be used in the high schools.

This report aims primarily to suggest how the materials presented in the volume may be used rather than to give a critical evaluation of the contents. The first question to be raised, therefore, is what objectives may be realized in the average high school through using the volume? Eleven of these objectives seem feasible in light of the contents.

1. *Clarifying meanings.*—Discussions with teachers and administrators have revealed considerable confusion in the minds of many regarding the meaning of such terms or concepts as "general education," "child growth and development," "work experience," "implications of social trends for the curriculum," "evaluation," and the like. There is also considerable vagueness in the minds of many educational workers as to how these concepts may be implemented in the schools in which they supervise or teach. Although these concepts have been the subject of numerous books and articles, the present volume has an advantage in that the discussions pertaining to them are gathered within the covers of one volume and are presented in relatively clear, concise terms. One of the important uses, therefore, which the volume may have in high schools is in the area of clarifying meanings.

2. *Appreciating the need for further democratization of the American high school.*—Probably no topic has received more attention in educational conferences during the past several years than

the implications of the democratic way of life for education. Now that totalitarian countries are actively challenging the democratic way of life, even increased emphasis is being given the subject. That there has been a large amount of talk in educational meetings about democracy is recognized by most individuals who have attended these conferences. In the opening chapter of the book Hand has again presented facts indicating need for further democratization along with four imperative recommendations. Workers in local school systems should find the material useful in checking practices within their own schools.

3. *Developing an understanding of the importance of the scientific movement in education.*—That there has been a significant development of a true science of education during the past four decades all teachers should know. They should believe that education is truly a *profession*. Most teacher-training curricula include a course in the history of education. In many instances this course has been unfortunately like many history courses, a compilation of facts and figures with much emphasis upon the activities of certain key men. It would be erroneous to suggest that courses in the history of education be abandoned or that the present content be eliminated; but the need exists for a more functional presentation. Emphasis should be placed on such experimentation during the past four decades as has changed the work of educators from mere "keeping school" to a scientific approach to the varied educational activities of today. In the volume under discussion this type of presentation is admirably illustrated in the chapters written by Willing and MacKenzie. Educational workers who study these two chapters should thrill with professional pride over the progress of the

scientific movement in education and be challenged to contribute to the future development of it.

4. *Studying the importance of child growth and development.*—For a long time adolescent psychology, individual differences, and the like have been discussed. Teachers, principals, and others have had courses in adolescent psychology, have read articles and heard lectures on the topic; yet the average teacher remains relatively more concerned about subject-matter content in her courses than in child welfare. Recently emphasis has been given the so-called "child growth and development" movement. The average individual, however, doesn't read the technical books on the subject. Therefore, the chapter in the present volume which sets forth some major implications of child development studies should prove valuable for stimulating an interest in the study of child welfare problems in the local school.

5. *Engaging in teacher-pupil planning.*—The college training of the average teacher did not include much instruction in the area of teacher-pupil planning. Consequently, Corey's discussion of the importance of having pupils assist in setting goals and in planning in general might well serve as a basis for local discussion. This is true because the average teacher has not accepted this point of view to the extent indicated in Corey's chapter.

6. *Studying the relation of social trends to the curriculum.*—The history of education offers evidence to support the assertion that the schools of any particular period tend to reflect the then existing social order. At present the curriculum of general education should probably represent a combination of aims based on the needs of children and the needs of society. Teachers and administrators need to understand what

these needs are. Many social needs are described in several chapters in the present volume. These needs may be studied carefully and used as a checklist in evaluating the offerings in the local schools.

7. *Facing the social, psychological, and educational issues.*—Every school needs to arrive at a definition of its purposes in terms of pupil, teacher, and community behavior. In setting out to do this the average faculty is likely to place too much reliance upon objectives assembled from courses of study of other schools and from authoritative statements. A better procedure would seem to be for the faculty, students, and others concerned squarely to face issues such as those raised by Havighurst in his chapter and in other chapters in the present book. Instead of collecting the objectives formulated by someone else, the persons concerned could arrive at a temporary settlement of the issues in the light of community needs and educational science as they are able to interpret these factors. Whether the teachers and others concerned agree or disagree with the writers in this volume is not the most important consideration; the significant thing is that they face the issues and resolve them for their own immediate use. The volume may serve well in bringing these issues into focus.

8. *Defining the locus of the school with respect to curriculum revision.*—In the chapter entitled, "The Curriculum is the Total Life of the School," Spears discusses different patterns of curriculum revision. Educational workers in a given school might well use this discussion and the scale of curriculum patterns presented there in charting the present status of curriculum development in the school. Would the school be classed as traditional, or extremely innovational, or how might it best be

described? The resultant discussion should help those in the school decide upon possible directions for future curriculum revision.

9. *Checking local practices.*—Implementation of educational theories and of scientifically proved practices in local school systems has usually been a difficult problem. The point of view frequently held is that local conditions are so different that what a given speaker or writer suggests as appropriate for the situation he is describing may not be suitable for the local school. One of the wholesome trends of recent years has been the practice of the National Association of Secondary School Principals and other groups to publish innovating practices in schools. The present volume presents practices in the field of general education in a group of schools representing a variety of socioeconomic environments. Similarly, check lists are made available for evaluating guidance activities. This material should prove valuable to those who are looking for suggestions for improving local practice.

10. *Meeting the work-experience needs of youth.*—The area of work-experience, including the programs of the NYA, CCC, work camps, and others, is not included in the training of most teachers and administrators. The average teacher has not been closely connected with these programs, except perhaps as supervisor of an NYA student. The time has arrived when every teacher needs to be familiar with these programs and their implications for secondary education. Teachers are inclined to center their interests all too frequently on college preparation rather than preparation for occupational adjustment. Jacobson has presented this material in a way that should be very useful to teachers and administrators in clarifying their thinking in this area and in



developing work-experience programs in their own schools.

II. *Evaluating the work of the school.*—The preparation of most teachers and administrators includes instruction in tests and measurements. From this source they have derived considerable knowledge about the I.Q. and other Q.'s, and about the names and nature of many standardized tests. All too frequently, however, no real philosophy of evaluation has eventuated from all of this. The program of evaluation suggested in the chapter by Tyler should be of considerable assistance to local workers in refining their school procedures.

Doubtless uses other than the eleven foregoing ones will be made of *General Education in the American High School*. These eleven, however, should indicate some of the possible areas in which the volume should prove useful.

Relatively little need be said regarding techniques for using the material. Most of the techniques which supervisors normally use, such as those described by Barr, Burton, and Brueckner in their volume on supervision would be appropriate.<sup>1</sup> It would seem well, however, to emphasize two points.

First, the material should be used as a basic checklist in the light of which local school practices may be viewed. Workers in local schools must get in the habit of studying their own problems. The program of the school should be examined over a period of months in each of the eleven areas described. This particular volume, of course, does not represent the final word in these areas, but it should serve as a charter to the workers making the study.

Second, in keeping with some of the fundamental tenets of the books, the ideas presented should be made the basis of cooperative group planning. The traditional school has had too much planning by the principal or supervisors without benefit of cooperative planning by teachers, students, and other members of the school community. A committee recently organized at Horace Mann School may illustrate the suggested technique. The particular problem in this case was what to do with a lagoon and woods on the school campus in order to make them serve the school and community better. A committee making a study of the matter was organized with the following personnel: three members of the student council, three adult members of the community, two members of the faculty, and the speaker. These representatives conferred with the three groups they represented; namely, the student body, Parent-Teachers Association, and the faculty. Obviously, the recommendations of this committee will be much more satisfactory to the different groups than if the decisions had been made by the principal alone. Similarly in attacking many curriculum problems, students, teachers, and community should be represented. All should have a share in planning, carrying forward, and continuously evaluating the work.

The function of this report has been to suggest some ways in which the volume might be used in the hypothetical "average" school. Eleven have been suggested. The importance of using the book as a stimulus to staff study of local school problems and to cooperative group action has been indicated. When used in the manner described the volume should result in an improved educational program for the community.

<sup>1</sup> A. S. Barr, William H. Burton, and Leo J. Brueckner, *Supervision*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Company, 1938.

## BOOK REVIEWS

*The Modern High School Curriculum*, by Paul E. and Natalie Maree Belting. Champaign, Illinois: The Garrard Press, 1942. Pp. 276.

This brief volume treats the curriculum of various fields of secondary education in more or less compartmentalized fashion. There are chapters dealing with English, social studies, guidance, business education, home economics, health and physical education, science, art, practical arts, agriculture, music, mathematics, and foreign languages. In addition there is a brief introductory section of twenty-two pages which presents the authors' underlying philosophy and psychology, and their concept of method. Also there is a very brief closing chapter entitled, "Summary and Integration."

Much has been written concerning the need of the school for a unified and consistent program, and of the necessity for developing a comprehensive philosophy based upon democratic values as a means of securing unity and consistency. The authors evidently had this idea in mind in the introductory chapter which purports to present as the title indicates, some principles underlying the modern high school curriculum. A brief paragraph is given over to a discussion of the "democratic ideal." We are told that "the greatest ideal of the country is the building of a society, generation after generation, that is capable of enjoying the benefits of freedom that come from democratic processes," and that our security depends upon cultivating intelligence, virtue, initiative, thinking, and responsibility on the part of leaders as well as "among the people in the common walk of life." But the authors fail to come to grips in any significant way with the deeper meanings of our democratic way of life.

The psychological theory advocated does not take into account the organismic approach. The idea seems to be that "primary responses" are highly specific, and that generalization takes place only after a series of specifics are learned. This would seem to be what the authors have in mind when they write, "In democracy, more attention is given to thinking. In fact, the highest type of learning school is the *memorization of materials* as a basis for intelligent criticism" (p. 11).

From the standpoint of social theory there

is confusion. The teachers are to help pupils develop "originality, open-mindedness and responsibility" (p. 11). But "it becomes the business of the teacher to see that formal subject matter *is laid out* in terms of meaning for the pupils" (p. 10). The authors insist that "somewhere along the line of growth and development, pupils must pass from childish ways of behavior, much of which is compulsory, to better modes of action, much of which should come from free choice" (p. 13). But we are warned that in the process "the child must acquire new skills, new interests and new meanings that are in conformity to the skills, interests and meanings of race experience" (p. 13). Education seems to be a matter of transmitting the social heritage rather than of reconstructing existing social patterns.

From the standpoint of method, much stress is placed upon projects in which the pupils "purpose, plan, execute and judge" what they do, free from compulsion, but in the proposals for the curriculum, in the various fields the ground to be covered seems to be laid out in advance. Thus, pupil-teacher planning is really shown the back door except within the limits of prescribed topics.

No general theory of curriculum development is to be discovered. Much of the recent discussion of various techniques for cooperative curriculum making calls for cooperative plans in which all of the teaching staff shares. Many programs have been instituted as a result of this experimentation. There is no mention of this new movement in the book. Just how the authors propose to formulate objectives, develop the curriculum, and evaluate the outcomes is far from clear. It must be said, however, that the general suggestions in the various fields are to some extent forward looking. There is a repeated insistence that the subjects be functional in the life of the learner, and the proposals for reform all emphasize this important point.

Space does not permit a detailed discussion of the curricular proposals in all of the different fields. For purposes of illustration let us take the field of social science which would appear to be typical. The authors wish to do away with the "old fashioned social studies curriculum and substitute for it a four year plan of 'social studies 1', 'social studies 2' and

so on. . . . The arrangement of courses would follow this plan: in the first year, American Government, both state and federal; in the second year, world history; in the third year, American history; and in the last year problems of democracy" (p. 47). Instead of the chronological treatment of history, the authors advocate the organization of units centering around current problems, with historical facts introduced only as they help the student to solve the problems. The units to be taught are apparently set up in advance. Just why the authors hold out for the traditional separations of history, government, and problems of democracy is not clear. If the plan of dealing with current problems is thoroughly developed such classifications would become meaningless abstractions. Apparently the authors have no intention of abandoning conventional subject matter categories for they give endorsement to the plan of the University of Chicago High School in which conventional categories are retained and a part of each year is given over to a study of the "stream of history" as a background of problem study. They also seem to have little faith in the problems technique, for in addition to the multiplicity of courses now offered they advocate two in addition—Latin American and Far Eastern history. If the program calls for a thorough-going analysis of current problems, why add additional courses in areas that would be bound to come into the picture anyway?

The book closes with a chapter which purports to deal with "integration." Brief suggestions are made as to how one area should be related to other areas. There is no discussion of the more fundamental meaning of integration as pertaining to the growth and development of the learner and no hint that the recent trends in core curriculum development have anything to recommend them.

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*Psychology of Adolescence*, by Luella Cole. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1942 (revised). Pp. xvii + 660.

Miss Cole's revision of her 1936 text differs from the original in a number of respects. The chief improvement is the inclusion of a large amount of new subject matter, especially data taken from recent longitudinal studies of adolescence. A better selection of case studies as well as a considerable amount of new pictorial material have also been added.

The author's interpretation of adolescent behavior is marked both by a refusal to think that occasional moral or social misdemeanors

are indicative of depravity and by a frank recommendation that adults must interfere now and then with adolescent whimsies in order to save boys and girls from social consequences far out of proportion to their crimes. The book covers a great deal of territory. There are chapters on the general problems adolescents face, as well as chapters describing their physical, emotional, social, moral and intellectual development. The figures, and there are more than one hundred of them, are often pictographic and are unusually interesting in and of themselves. The author's writing style is informal and completely lacking in pedantry. As was true of the original edition, the book has been made maximally useful by elaborating not only the facts about adolescent development, but as well, the implications of these facts for those who work with young people.

Miss Cole makes very extensive use of excerpts from case studies. One of the serious difficulties faced by any author who refers to case studies continuously is the problem of distinguishing between their use for *support* in contradistinction to *enlightenment*. By support the reviewer means the citation of a case, or excerpts from a case to illustrate or clarify a problem. By enlightenment he means the use of cases as bases for arriving at generalizations about behavior. Valid instances of the latter occur infrequently. The statistical hazards involved in basing generalizations about adolescents in general upon reports of what one youngster did are great. Miss Cole's style rather consistently involves citing a generalization often supported by objective data, and then bringing forward an interesting and dramatic case to illustrate and/or establish the truth of the generalization. The reviewer was frequently uncertain just which type of use was being made of the case material.

As far as general format and organization are concerned the book is superior. The bibliographies are extensive rather than selected and appear generally as footnotes. The index includes the names of only four authors (Terman, Binet, Pressey, and Freud) so that the reader who wants to locate discussions of specific researches in which he is interested is considerably handicapped. An appendix includes the names and publishers of nine books containing case histories, as well as a list of more than one hundred excellent novels which deal tactfully and understandingly with various phases of human development. The summaries which appear at the end of each chapter are well written but in many cases they are too brief. They range from one hundred to five hundred words, with a median of about 175.



If a large number of teachers and administrators in secondary schools could study this summary of what is known, or strongly suspected to be true, about adolescents and if they could accomplish the much more difficult objective of putting their understandings to work in their dealings with young people, our high schools would be profoundly influenced. Much more time, for example, would be devoted to developing learning experiences that would help young people wrestle successfully with their own problems. The assumption that all adolescents are pretty much alike, and that their intellectual growth can be considered apart from their moods and physical development, would no longer determine so many of our practices.

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*The Foundation of Modern Education*, by Elmer Harrison Wilds. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, Inc., 1942 (revised). Pp. xi + 690.

This is a new and enlarged edition of an extremely valuable book. As stated by the author, "this book attempts to present to the student of education the story of the development of educational thought from primitive times to the present day." As such, it seeks to outline in some detail both the historical and the philosophical backgrounds of modern education.

The six years that have elapsed since the publication of the first edition of this book have been crucial years in our history. Because the crises through which we have recently passed have greatly influenced educational thought and practices, this revised edition contains a complete new chapter covering the educational developments of these recent years. In this new edition, the discussion questions throughout have also been "revised to relate the facts of the past more closely to educational conditions and problems of today and the reading references have been expanded to include some of the excellent books that have appeared since the publication of the first edition."

The new chapter, "Education and the World Crisis," in the revised edition presents a very interesting and timely discussion of the two seemingly conflicting philosophies of education that have emerged from the proposals of educational leaders in their efforts to adapt education to the needs of the world in the present crisis: (1) idealistic progressivism, and (2) realistic essentialism. According to

the author, "Education faces the crossroads; it is hard to say which of these philosophies is to prevail. While the world was in the throes of economic depression, progressivism seemed to be the ascendant, at least in our own country. But with the world at war, and especially since our own entry into the war in December of 1941, essentialism seems to be gaining ground. The more idealistic progressivism is concerned with the development of personality, and has a primary regard for wholesome human growth and development. The more realistic essentialism is concerned with the preservation of our ways of life and the adaptation of education to the maintenance of our established institutions and practices."

Part I of the book is entitled, "Foundations of Educational Theory in Ancient and Medieval Times" and discusses the educational conceptions of primitive peoples, oriental nations, Hebrews, Greeks, Romans, the humanitarianism conception of the early Christians, the spiritual discipline conception of the medieval period, and the application of scientific knowledge during the Saracenic movement. Part II, devoted to "Modern Educational Theories," includes humanism, religious moralism, realism, formal discipline and the rule of reason, naturalism, nationalism, developmentalism, scientific determinism, and the social traditionalism and experimentalism.

The material of the book is organized on a basis of "selective continuity." Each unit presents a separate treatment of each phase of education—aims, types, content, agencies, organization, methods—in such a way that the history of educational aims, the history of curriculum content, the history of school organization, or the history of educational methods can be readily traced from their beginnings down to the present time.

This book can be most successfully used as a basic text with advanced students of education and it will also undoubtedly serve as an indispensable reference in existing courses in the history of education. The author has displayed an excellent sense of balance and discrimination in the selection of topics, but, because the field he attempts to cover is so extensive, a number of the topics have been unduly simplified and are not discussed as exhaustively as might quite generally be regarded desirable. There are also relatively few references to original source materials. Another limitation of the book is that the lines of demarcation between the various educational theories and movements have been drawn rather sharply, with the result that



sequential interrelationships have been given insufficient emphasis.

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University of Arkansas

*Guidance Methods for Teachers*, by Clarence C. Dunsmoor and Leonard M. Miller. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Company, 1941. Pp. xvi + 382.

The decade of the 1930's was a trying period for American youth. Accustomed securities had been shaken; traditional pathways of opportunity were blocked; young people frequently found themselves faced with frustration; parents, themselves insecure, were in no position to provide wise counsel. As a result, schools found themselves called upon in increasing measure to assume responsibilities beyond those comprehended in their traditional role.

It is no accident that during the same decade several of the most far-reaching studies of the conditions, problems, and needs of youth have been made and that the literature of guidance has been increased by many volumes, pamphlets, and articles in educational periodicals. Books on guidance have presented contrasting and, in some cases, conflicting points of view. Vocational guidance appears as a distinct type of service and as merely one phase of a larger concept; "guidance as education" and guidance as a specialized service have had their advocates; some have presented guidance as a clinical procedure to be carried on by technical experts and others have viewed it as an inescapable responsibility of every teacher. The result has been confusion for many conscientious teachers and school administrators concerned to meet their obligations effectively. It is against this background that a new volume in the field is to be judged.

The title of the book by Dunsmoor and Miller commends it to the average teacher. It purports "to provide a source for ready reference on practical methods and materials for use by teachers who are charged with the responsibility for guidance in home room or classroom." The first two chapters are entitled, *Division of Responsibilities in Guidance* and *Guidance Contributions of Teachers*. In the judgment of the reviewer the analysis of guidance functions leaves something to be desired. The authors say that "It is reasonable to expect that all teachers shall have a share, and a big one, in the guidance program" but

the teacher's actual participation in guidance is so hedged about with limitations as to be relatively meaningless. It is held that "the contributions of the teacher should be largely confined to the adjustive phases of guidance" and that "the work of the trained counselor, while vitally concerned with all phases of guidance, should be primarily directed toward those involving choices and plans," but it is not made clear how these two types of responsibility can be effectively separated in dealing with an individual pupil. The description of "five important ways in which teachers contribute directly or indirectly to the guidance of students" seems to be, for the most part, a consideration of qualities desired in a teacher and might appropriately appear in almost any recent book on teaching methods. The authors seem to have wavered between the concept of *guidance by teachers* and *guidance by experts* and to have left the reader dangling uncertainly in the middle.

In Part II we find detailed suggestions of a practical nature for organization of a home room group, conduct of business meetings, committee activities, etc. Part III, comprising the major portion of the book, gives consideration to methods and materials of group guidance, individual counseling by teachers, and certain specialized problems. Part IV includes a chapter each on source materials and evaluation of guidance activities. In Chapter XVI the authors have brought together a comprehensive and carefully selected list of source materials, annotated and organized according to probable use. For many this will prove the most helpful chapter in the book.

The style leaves something to be desired in a scholarly work intended for general reading. The writing is at times involved and ambiguous and there is a tendency in some chapters to amass lists of vague generalities. At the risk of appearing pedantic, the reviewer must confess annoyance at the disregard of accepted grammatical usage, as in the failure to discriminate appropriate uses of indicative and subjunctive, gerund and participle, and the prepositions "between" and "among."

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*Child Psychology*, by John J. B. Morgan. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1942 (third edition). Pp xvii + 588.

The original book and its two revisions are evidence of the progress made in recent years in the study of child psychology.



The first edition was published in 1931 at a time when little experimental work in child study had been attempted.

The second edition, which appeared in 1934, showed modification in harmony with the findings of several investigators who were interested particularly in children of nursery school age or younger.

This third edition is a genuinely integrative study, made possible through manifold observational and experimental investigations which have appeared in ever increasing numbers in recent years.

The volume of material sifted and evaluated by Morgan is indicated by the fact that he has used in his chapter references a total bibliography of 533 articles, most of which have been written since 1930, and many of them as late as 1941. A glance through the reference is sufficient to show that the author was not at all biased in his selections, but on the contrary, authors as widely divergent in methodology or attitudes as Baldwin and Gesell, Terman and Wellman, Burt and Harts-horne, Watson and McDougal are freely recognized.

The conclusions from these studies are written in the straightforward, easily understood, and interesting manner which is characteristic of Morgan's productions.

The development of the child is traced from the one-celled fertilized ovum to the fully developed adolescent by means of fifteen carefully compiled chapters, each one of which is thoroughly documented, and most of which are well summarized and accompanied by practical suggestions to parents and teachers, showing how the findings may be practically applied in actual growth situations.

Practically no space is given to the never-settled question of the relative or quantitative contribution of nature or nurture to development, but rather the point of view held is that the potentials of the individual child are enabled to develop in accordance with the environmental influences which play upon him, that this development comes in serial order, and that premature influences have little effect upon its rate or final height.

The child develops in his motor skills, emotional poise, and the intellectual strength only by self activity, and the chief business of teachers or parents is to insure this self activity through effective motivation.

The discussion of play and work is good, and the position is taken that the difference between the two is a difference in attitude. Play is engaged in because of the joy of doing it while work is done under a sense of duty

and to accomplish a goal which lies outside the activity itself. It follows that it is desirable "to incorporate the play 'attitude' in all school activities."

The last three chapters entitled "Intelligence," "Social Development," and "The Growing Personality" are discussions similar to those found in any text book of psychology of the present day.

As a whole, the work is a valuable contribution to the literature of child psychology.

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*The Development of University Centers in the South*, A. F. Kuhlman, editor. Nashville: Vanderbilt University Press, 1942. Pp. 128.

On December 5 and 6, 1941, there was dedicated in Nashville the magnificent new building of the Joint University Library, which Library was formed by the union of the libraries of Peabody College, Scarritt College, and Vanderbilt University. This union of library resources represents a phase of the effort to pool, so far as is possible, all the resources of these three institutions—by exchange of professors, by the combining of classes in the same subject, and by service by one library staff—and thereby to avoid waste and duplication of effort. This cooperative arrangement is in turn part of a significant movement towards the establishment of university centers throughout the South wherever the location of institutions makes such cooperation possible.

This volume is composed of the twelve papers presented at the dedication of this library and describes, in addition to the Nashville center, the work of three other centers located in Atlanta, in New Orleans, and in Chapel Hill—Durham, N. C. These papers are published "not as a record of great accomplishments but rather as an indication of a highly significant movement in America—of cooperation in higher education, research, and library development on a regional basis." Although largely factual in content, they provide stimulating reading in that they show the vision and faith of the men who are laboring to make possible in the South, which has almost a quarter of the population of the whole country, centers of culture and research comparable to those in the hitherto more favored sections of the North and East.

Two especially noteworthy papers of the group are those by Dr. Bishop and Dr. Kuhl-



man. Dr. Bishop's address, showing how university libraries have contributed immeasurably to scholarship by building up very large collections of books, by possessing scholarly librarians and maintaining competent staffs, by encouraging and advising collectors of books and often profiting greatly at a later date by their bequests, and by developing photographic methods of reproduction, is, to the knowledge of this reviewer, the best *raison d'être* of the university library which has appeared. Dr. Kuhlman's account of the program of the Joint University Library, including the excellent description of the building and the arrangement under which the Library operates, is of especial interest to those concerned with libraries.

It is obvious that there are many difficulties to be overcome in the establishment of any university center, as there are also in the union of library resources such as at Nashville. However, with the reduction of income which is already hampering the work of many institutions, both privately and state supported, and with the probability of still further reductions to come, the joining of resources and avoidance of waste and duplication may go far toward enabling these institutions to avoid mediocrity and even destruction in some cases. This book should therefore be of interest to administrative officials of colleges and universities, and to librarians in such institutions. It is to be hoped that Dr. Kuhlman will eventually write in detail of the problems he encounters and the solutions attempted in the difficult feat of merging these libraries, as an aid in the planning of library cooperation elsewhere.

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*Community Organization for Health Education.* The Report of A Committee of the Public Health Education Section and the Health Officers Section of the American Public Health Association. New York: American Public Health Association, 1941. Pp. 120.

In every community there are agencies and groups of people interested in improving the health and welfare of the children and adults in that community. The problem of consolidating this interest and coordinating efforts so that effective community programs may result, is one on which much thought and energy are being expended. Cooperative effort

to effect changes that will enrich community living is an expression of the democratic process at work.

This report describes community enterprises that have been effective in improving health education. Some of these programs have been initiated under school leadership; others under health department leadership and others by the joint efforts of schools, health departments, and private agencies. The twelve communities described were selected from a list of 146 suggested as having good health education programs by commissions of health and commissions of education in the various states and by representative individuals prominent in health education and related fields. A field worker visited twenty-six of these communities in twelve different states. Most of the programs described are on a county basis. These initiated through school leadership (Appomattox and Rockbridge Counties, Virginia) include also Bullock County, Georgia, where a "zone plan" for rural school supervision carried on by the State Teachers College at Statesboro became an initiatory factor. In an effort to put into operation the central idea of improving rural life as the aim for the school program, the rural supervisor and others soon discovered health problems as an obstacle. What the schools did to define and solve these problems and how this interest led ultimately to the development of better public health service in the area is an interesting and instructive story.

Similar accounts tell what health departments did to motivate the school in developing better community programs in Santa Barbara County and San Joaquin Local Health District in California; Jefferson County, Alabama; and Calhoun County, Michigan. Likewise, interesting comments are given to programs initiated under joint sponsorship in Cottagegrove and Eugene, Oregon, where a community health committee is functioning; in Washington County, Tennessee, where a community health coordinator is at work; and in Hartford, Connecticut, where the Tuberculosis Association and Board of Health initiated a community plan that has included twenty-one different agencies. Application of cooperative planning to the state level is expressed in descriptive plans for Tennessee and Oregon.

Fundamental observations, which may be used as guiding principles in the development of community programs elsewhere, summarize a report with high suggestive value for the school administrator.

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